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ABSTRACT

The first article in this annual compilation ("Review of an International Conference on the University in the Future World," by Ransoo Kim) describes an international conference of Christian universities, held in May, 1985 at Yonsei University, to review the functions, problems, and missions of universities from a global perspective. Universities have frequently been the converging point for revolutionary forces and the catalysts for ideas to improve human welfare and, as a result, should develop futuristic orientations and global perspectives. Dr. Nathan M. Pusey, President of Harvard University, later emphasized that the mission of the university is to direct more attention to rational inquiry in search of truth and to the study of humanism in curriculums. Dr. P. T. Chandi, representing Christian universities in India, recommended a shift from studying facts to learning how to learn and an emphasis on developing the "whole person". Dr. Woo Chu Lee maintained Korean universities should return to an emphasis on liberal arts curricula and become creators of the social value which will lead people in the future. Dr. A. Latif added that universities should cooperate in higher education as a desirable step in meeting the world's needs in the future. Participants agreed that in order to assure that educated persons become a serving minority instead of an exploitative one, universities should teach the value of human dignity and a commitment to serve all persons. Most of the attendees urged Yonsei University to become a leader in teaching the dignity of humanistic values.

(JHP)

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This publication contains special reports on educational developments, together with reviews and reports of recent documents selected from the collection of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. We invite officials of Member States in the region, members of international organizations and all interested readers to send recent publications for possible review or mention in future issues, as well as special reports on new education policies or major programmes.

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EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

*Reviews,
Reports and
Notes*

Number 23
December 1986



UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE
FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1986

Overlooking the sea, the Uisangdae Pavilion is set up on the coast between Sokcho and Kangneung in Kangwondo Province, Republic of Korea. It was built in honour of High Priest Uisang who served under Silla King Munmu in the latter part of the Seventh century.

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FOREWORD

The Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific has brought out an annual publication entitled: 'Education in Asia and the Pacific: Reviews, Reports and Notes' since 1972. This publication features special reports, reviews of recent publications and studies and notes on Asian documents, sources of documents, and a supplementary list of recent publications.

This publication has been designed to serve the expressed needs of Member States in the Region. Each country is desirous to know and genuinely interested in the educational situation in neighbouring countries as well as in the most recent educational developments in the region. This is clearly a healthy sign of concern for, and belief in, co-operation among peoples who share the same hopes and objectives.

In many respects the problems of educational development everywhere are common or similar. Each country has taken such steps as are necessary following its wisdom and commensurate with its capabilities to achieve the goals and objectives of educational development. Success is often impeded by various constraints and complex factors such as continuing demographic pressures, shortages of material and human resources, outmoded systems of administration, lack of incentives, and a host of other problems familiar to educators and educationists alike.

Several innovative approaches have been tried out in countries of the region to cope with these constraints and to resolve some of the problems at hand. While success stories provide valuable information, the less successful experiments also offer equally useful lessons from which one may learn and benefit. This publication is designed to facilitate the sharing and exchange of information and experiences in these respects.

The present issue of the publication is brought out at a time when the Member States will be celebrating the fortieth anniversary of the founding of UNESCO as well as the International Year of Peace. It is hoped that sharing of information and experiences through this publication will continue to be useful in the years to come.

Makaminan Makagiansar
Assistant Director-General
for Co-ordination of Unesco Activities
in Asia and the Pacific
and
Director, UNESCO Regional Office for
Education in Asia and the Pacific

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Special Reports



REVIEW OF AN INTERNATIONAL
CONFERENCE ON THE UNIVERSITY
IN THE FUTURE WORLD

*by Ransoo Kim**

Yonsei University hosted an international conference in commemoration of its centenary on 8-9 May 1985. The purpose of the conference was to review critically the functions performed by the university, to analyze in depth its current problems and deliberate on the future mission of the university from a world perspective.

There were two reasons for setting the above as the major theme of the conference. *Firstly*, in contemporary society universities have been the converging point for major revolutionary forces as well as the springboard for the emergence of viable ideas for the improvement of human welfare. Thus, the interaction pattern of challenge and response between the university and the surrounding society is characterized by rapidity, variety and complexity. Furthermore, for the survival of humanity in this global village era, the role of the university cannot be limited only to its national and regional interactions but must be expanded to the international level. *Secondly*, it has been proved historically that a society which lacks strong identity with posterity but has a pessimistic image of the future is not able to solve its problems and is doomed to fail. With these views on the role of the university education having shaped Yonsei University over the past century, the university is now aspiring to explore desirable missions in the world of the future, at least for the century

* Currently Professor of Higher Education and Dean of the College of Education at Yonsei University. He was chairman of the Conference Committee.

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ahead. For a university must have both futuristic orientation and global perspective in planning and developing its programmes. Needless to emphasize, in the ambiguous but irresistibly 'shrinking' world of our time, a vital university must have the institutional dynamism to adapt its programmes to the rapidly changing societal demands of global interdependence.

With this lofty idea, internationally renowned scholars, planners and administrators from major universities, who have already demonstrated the highest order of statemanship, were invited to present their vision of excellence on the mission of the university in future world perspective at the four plenary sessions. And in the four subsessions (Humanities, Social Sciences, Science and Engineering, and Medical Sciences) 28 specialists participated to present their views on viable and feasible futures for university education. Every speaker had one or two discussants and lively discussion was followed in every session. Thus, the scope of this conference was truly grand in terms of the ideas suggested to enhance academic excellence and the items raised to improve various programmes for quality education. It is not possible to synthesize all of them in this short paper, therefore a synoptive review is made mainly of the plenary sessions.

Dr. Nathan M. Pusey, based upon his 18 years experience of Harvard University presidency, elucidated that the modern times are unique in terms of the 'forward and upward' thrust and that the university placed in such a setting has a much more expanded expectation to meet than in previous times. Although he did not neglect the instrumental utility of university education for individuals and society, he directed more attention to the centrality of rational inquiry in search of truth as the fundamental mission of a university and the importance of humanism in its programmes. It is interesting to note that Dr. Pusey questioned the hitherto uncritical future-mindedness and tried to bring concern upon the present by stating that:

The University's primary mission is not the future. The time of chief concern to it is and must always be the present... It will show its concern for the future, not by dreaming of a better age, but by working diligently to prepare succeeding generations of individuals who will be able, and who will wish in their turn to cope with and improve what will then be the existing arrangements of their societies.

He pointed out that there are universities - but also other institutions which are reflecting social and cultural differences; they are all 'imperfect institutions, riddled with internal limitations and hampered by external hindrances'. He ended, however, on a hopeful note by saying that all those engaged in higher education must have faith in the critical exercise of human reason... whether such a faith is Christian in origin or otherwise... by which progress could be made, and that they must learn to live with the uncertainties and imperfections of our times. Dr. Pusey's call for 'faith' was particularly lauded by the Dr. Ha Tai Kim, his discussant, who also reiterated Dr. Pusey's criticism of the contemporary emphasis upon science and technology at the neglect of spiritual well-being through humanistic learning in higher education. However, Dr. Kim pointed out that the realities faced by developing nations require that their universities be future-minded to a certain extent: that the need for planned action for national development placed demands upon the universities alien to universities in the already developed Western societies.

Rev. Dr. P.T. Chandi, the second speaker, voiced many of the same issues raised by Dr. Pusey, although perhaps in a different terminology and based upon the experiences of the developing nation, particularly in India. He characterized today's universities as being faced by the phenomena of 'explosion of knowledges', 'explosion of numbers' (university enrolments), and 'explosion of expectations'. After a discussion

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of each of these phenomena in detail in terms of the 'suddenness and uncontrollability' that they present to those involved in higher education, he suggested a number of directions that the universities must take in order to meet the challenges of the future. First of all, there must be a shift from learning concrete facts and answers to 'learning how to learn'. Then, there must be a resolution of the tension among the issues of 'quality', 'quantity', and 'equality'. Also needed are an enhanced co-ordination among universities within a region (which is a subject dealt with in greater detail by Dr. Latif) as well as a movement away from an uncritical emphasis on 'fruit-bearing' education to a balance between that and 'light-bearing' education, i.e. humanistic education. There must also be respect for academic freedom as well as a value-orientation for moral concerns. Finally, 'the worth and dignity of the individual' -- which is consistent with the Christian faith in the all-round development of the 'whole person' -- must be reinstated amidst bureaucratic and mechanical efficiency of modern university organizations. In commenting upon Dr. Chandi's ideas, Dr. Myong Won Suhr reviewed the problems of Korean universities, and concluded that Dr. Chandi's call for value-oriented, spiritual learning is required of Korean higher education as much as that of any other country. He also commented that in this context, Yonsei, as a Christian university, is an optimum institution to meet that need in the decades to come.

Further details of the problems and issues faced by Korean universities as they try to meet the demands of the coming information society was found in Dr. Woo Chu Lee's presentation. Beginning with a statement of the crisis in Korean higher education, Dr. Lee elaborated upon the recent history of the nation, the philosophy and strategy of economic developments that have predominated national concerns, their ill effects, particularly in light of stifling academic creativity and freedom, and the resulting tensions and conflicts found on university campuses in Korea. He then went on to suggest several conditions that must be met in order for Korean universities to meet

the need for education of wholesome human beings who will be required in the coming information age. Specifically, he called for the reinstatement and preservation of university autonomy and the spirit of truth and freedom on the campuses. He also called for education for the development of wholesome persons based upon liberal arts curricula, whose importance had been reduced and unrecognized in the recent past. Also called upon were the increased relevance and practicality of education and research as well as the centrality of the universities as creators of social values which will guide the people in the coming new age.

Although he focused upon the Korean situation, Dr. Lee made it clear in his conclusion that the concern for the future of Korean universities must be placed in a global perspective with a view to enhancing the universal cause of 'peace and prosperity of mankind'. In this regard, he called for Yonseians 'to become mature cosmopolitans' and to work toward the construction of a world community. While fully supportive of Dr. Lee's ideas on the whole the discussant, Dr. Dong Hun Lee, added that today's Korean scholars and universities are in a position not only to make general theories and knowledge relevant to the Korean context, but also to make positive contributions to the advancement of science and education on a global level.

Dr. A. Latif's presentation differed from the other three in that it dealt with one particular issue, which may have been raised but not pursued in detail by the other speakers of the plenary sessions in their global delineation of the theme. Specifically, the issue was that of regional co-operation in higher education as a desirable and feasible step toward meeting the demands of the future world. Further, Dr. Latif attempted to illustrate the usefulness of regional co-operation by focusing upon the case of the Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), co-ordinated by UNESCO, which he has been involved in since its inception in 1975. Dr. Latif summarized the salient features

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of APEID that have made it successful in promoting regional exchanges and co-operation in higher education as: a participatory approach, flexibility in its activities, prompt response to critical needs of member nations and organizations, and a strong information base. After addressing some of the key questions about regional co-operation -- why have it at all?; what can advanced members learn from less advanced ones?; why regional co-operation, why not international co-operation?; and how can regional co-operation help developing countries? -- Dr. Latif suggested ways in which individual universities and arrangements for regional co-operation such as APEID may interact for mutual benefits. The main point in the suggestions were that studies about the future society and education at APEID require an interdisciplinary approach, which the universities can provide, and APEID can contribute to reform as well as innovations of individual universities.

Discussing Dr. Latif's presentation, Dr. Se-Ho Shin described the problems of higher education in the Asia-Pacific region as various kinds of conflict i.e. between popularization and the search for excellence, egalitarianism and meritocracy, quantity and quality, ideals and reality, and autonomy and control. However, he also made it clear that the efforts of the people in the region have made great strides in terms of attaining a 'subjective consciousness of nationhood'. He noted that higher education of each country and regional co-operation for higher education among nations have played an important role in that advancement. As for APEID itself, Dr. Shin noted that its success is partly due to the corps of personnel dedicated to educational innovations with a high sense of commitment. He pointed out, however, that an extensive study on APEID's effectiveness in educational innovations in the region has yet to be conducted.

In sum, although there were some differing views as to the specific missions of universities, speakers and discussants were all inclined to recognize the futuristic orientation and global perspective needed

for the planning and development of university programmes. A humanistic reorientation of programmes was also emphasized for industrialization inevitably produces an exclusively technological culture, which undermines spiritual and moral values. The cultural values embedded in productivity-oriented societies are heavily relying upon science and technology which are instrumental, rather than humanistic. As industrialization spreads, some pathological phenomena are occurring in Korean society as they are in advanced industry societies. Thus, for the improvement of human welfare on earth, it was deemed necessary that man's spiritual growth keep pace with his material affluence, so that he or she may develop values to ensure the common good and to enhance humanity.

In this regard, the role of university graduates is of the utmost importance, for those privileged few become the ruling minority and lead the underprivileged masses. In order to make this dominant minority into a serving minority instead of an exploitative one, the internalization of the value of human dignity and the commitment to serve the masses must be given due recognition in every programme for students. Most of the speakers and discussants urged the host university to serve as a change-catalyst in reforming university programmes for restoring the dignity of humanistic values. Yonsei University, since its opening in 1985 by Christian missionaries in collaboration with Korean leaders, has cherished the spirit of rebirth and Christianity in teaching students, faculty research and social outreach programmes with its motto 'truth and freedom' (derived from the Gospel according to St. John 8:31-32). The proceedings of the conference are in the process of publication by the university press of Yonsei.

WORK-ORIENTED, NON-FORMAL, CAREER
EDUCATION: CALL IT WHAT YOU LIKE
- IN THAILAND IT WORKS!

*by Wilawan Charanyananda**

King Rama V of Thailand commanded the establishment of schools for the benefit of people throughout the country. This extended education from the Royal and official families to the nation as a whole. His Majesty said, 'Our children, from my children to the lowest level must have an equal chance to learn. Education must be non-exclusive for all. Therefore I declare that learning in our country is the most important thing that I will be involved in'.

In 1884, the Government established schools for the common people, thereby beginning the first century of primary education in Thailand. This organization of primary education was developed in stages involving the traditional grouping of subjects such as reading, writing and arithmetic. It did not concern itself with the daily problems of family and society. People resources were soon in demand, especially in the remote provinces. This gave rise to the 'manpower' projections now in vogue throughout the developing world. As a result of these 'people power' needs, the curriculum for teaching in primary education was altered in the fifth National Economic and Social Development Plan, emphasizing local development. The curriculum of this programme was to be aimed at enhancing lives of individuals, promoting a work ethic in children, and helping families adapt to societal and occupational changes.

* Wilawan Charanyananda, Ph.D. Supervisor, Ministry of Education, Department of Teacher Education, Bangkok, Thailand.

Response

The 1978 curriculum of primary education consisted of skill development; enhancement of life experience; promotion of character; offering of basic work experience; and special experience.

One of the most necessary and urgent of these was seen to be in the work skill area leading to occupational proficiency. This would require new equipment, facilities, teaching materials, a high level of teacher training and a strong commitment of all involved. To meet this challenge, the Ministry of Education has mobilized the professional human resources from the Department of Teacher Education, the Office of the National Primary Education Commission and the Department of Curriculum and Instructional Development. Financial and technical assistance was received from the Canadian International Development Agency, the United Nations International Children's Educational Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO).

Specifics

Specific objectives for this work-oriented education programme were designated to:

1. solve immediate problems in work-oriented education as specified in the Thai Elementary Education Curriculum;
2. upgrade teaching and learning in elementary schools in Thailand through collaboration between the departments of Curriculum and Instructional Development, Teacher Education, and the Office of the National Primary Education Commission;
3. develop the entire system of teaching and learning in regard to work-oriented education (i.e. curriculum, content, teaching and learning processes, learning media, teaching materials, equipment, evaluation of knowledge, ideas, skills and attitudes);

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4. develop personnel in the Department of Teacher Education and the Office of the National Primary Education Commission regarding work-oriented teaching and learning concepts at the elementary level;
5. realize budget savings in in-service education by evolving teaching/learning packages from which teachers can learn by doing, outside of the formal in-service process;
6. seek effective patterns of teaching/learning packages that will have lasting educational value and be economical to produce;
7. develop packages with appropriate media, equipment and materials for both teacher and learner;
8. bring desirable packages of the Office of the National Primary Education Commission into the system of teacher education at both the pre-service and in-service levels;
9. help solve the problem of schools lacking training materials along with that of teachers having insufficient time to develop their own;
10. develop programmes of educational quality with a standardized format; and
11. emphasize the student's role in the educational process by providing opportunities to think, problem-solving and learning by doing to increase skill acquisition.

To meet these objectives, teaching/learning packages on work-oriented education were developed. Design teams were created to seek methods to improve the teaching/learning system in Thai elementary schools in real-life situations. Attempts were thus made to reduce teaching loads, emphasize learning by doing, and increase student involvement by the construction of modules and training materials.

The first stage of this plan (begun in 1982) involved the drafting of a plan by 100 instructors from Thai Teacher Training Colleges. From this draft came a pilot project with 144 teachers and 34 education officers. This reorganized plan was then distributed to 545 schools in 18 provinces with the support of UNICEF. These materials were then rewritten by instructors from 36 Teacher Training Colleges. The first edition of these materials were distributed to 300 schools in 38 disadvantaged provinces in 1984. The final step has been the piloting of a total project including the training of teachers and primary students in a specific provincial elementary school.

The ultimate conclusion of this effort has been the development of approximately 350 units of learning. They are divided into five branches (homemaking, agriculture, mechanics, handicrafts and other vocations), twelve specific fields (clothing, raising animals, vegetables, woodwork, masonry, metals, electricity, radio, machine handling, working with bamboo, barber work and hair-dressing and 27 lesson plans.

Use

A complete set of teaching/learning packages with papers, media kits, materials and equipment is placed in a school or learning Centre. In studying the kits, teachers find that all media and materials are included. In each class, a teacher may use several lesson plans at the same time by dividing students into small groups allowing a more individualized study. Students in the same class may select several unit lesson plans from the specific fields. This provides students with the opportunity to choose lessons according to their aptitudes and interests. This helps to encourage self-exploration. The Department of Teacher Education continues to conduct short training courses to introduce teachers to the use of the kits.

Primary education is the first big step for children on their way into the mainstream of life. It is obvious that at some time they must orient themselves to the needs of life as they see them, find

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their particular capabilities, and promote their role in their society. With the co-operation of all parties involved, the following century of Thai education will be an ever-growing success. It is hoped that through the use of work-oriented learning packages, Thai children will continue to grow in character and partake in the economic and social expansion of their country.

*Reviews of
Recent Publications
and Studies*



POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Asia-Pacific report: trends, issues, challenge. Honolulu, East-West Centre, 1986. 104 p.

The initiating factor behind this report is the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the East-West Centre which has provided an opportunity for the Centre staff members to describe and evaluate major developments in the Asia-Pacific region in the last quarter of a century, as well as casting a glance ahead into the near future. The report does not try to cover all aspects of importance; it focuses on issues of importance in the relationship between the region on the one hand and the United States of America on the other (US Congress is a main supplier of funds to the Centre). Against a background of recent historic developments, the issues of greatest importance to policymaking and policy research in the years to come are divided into two main categories, which constitute the two major parts of the report. These are the political and economic context; and selected topics, such as the impact on the region of the world economy, trends in demography and the use of renewable and non-renewable resources. The report ends with a conclusion.

Political and economic context

The leading thesis in this part of the report is the following: countries with continuing economic growth are more likely to resolve internal and external political matters in dispute by peaceful means than countries with no or low economic growth. The analysis of domestic politics and internal relations of importance in Asia and the Pacific can thus be seen as a 'prelude' to the succeeding economic analysis, the aspect of which forms the 'centre of gravity' in the present report.

Reviews of recent publications and studies

Analyzing briefly the political history of the region, the conclusion reached is that the general direction of the central political process in countries of Asia has been towards more authoritarian forms of rule, whereas the Pacific has put emphasis on open debate and majority voting. Accepting that there will be a vast number of explanations, as to why this is so, the report nevertheless gives some suggestions of explanation to this fact by focusing on the potentially most explosive societal questions that affect more than one of the countries in the region. The region is characterized by the existence of tensions with an ethnic/linguistic background, from religious and ideological borderlines, from the painful process of including wider groups in the process of economic and political participation and from lack of clear mechanisms for succession in the process of change in political leadership. Whereas all these issues pose threats towards achieving a democratic development in the separate countries, the trends in the international relations in the region are seen more positively. Mentioned are ASEAN, the South Pacific Forum and SAARC.* Though superpower rivalry does not hold good for the future of the region, the major achievement of the past quarter century cannot be questioned: virtually all countries have become independent and self-governed.

Accepting that differences between economic development in countries of the region are enormous, the report nevertheless strives towards finding trends and tendencies, therefore operating with a grouping

* Whereas NIC is a non-formalized group of countries comprising South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore, the ASEAN countries are a formal group consisting of Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Brunei. The South Pacific Forum is composed of heads of government from all the independent countries of the Pacific, including Australia and New Zealand. SAARC, South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (established in 1983) comprises Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. When the report operates with the term 'resource-rich countries', this group is also called ASEAN-4 and comprises Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand.

of the countries, based on eco-geographic characteristics. These are the newly industrialized countries (NIC), the resource-rich ASEAN countries, the low-income Southeast Asian countries, China, the South Asian countries and the Pacific island states. The report abstains from applying a yardstick, a universal definition of economic success and failure and chooses instead to describe analytically the various reasons for this variegate of economic situations and the strategies (or lack of such) which have brought about the status quo. Though acknowledging the impressive results which Japan and the NICs can display, the report is not blind to other achievements among less economically advanced states, which might be moving towards a better economic future, but are setting out from a very low starting point.

Selected topics

The first topic, The world economy and the region, is analyzed from the point of view that countries, in which a market-oriented, outward-looking policy has prevailed, have done better than countries with a restricted economic policy. On the background of analyzing Japan's and the US's trade policies, the report stresses the importance of the US remaining faithful to the open world trading system. Doubt is expressed on Japan's ability or willingness to absorb manufactured goods from the region and it is pointed out that Japanese investments have concentrated on middle-income countries in East and Southeast Asia, ignoring largely South Asia. This has resulted in only little economic growth there, which is seen as damaging to the countries themselves, to the region as such as also to the interests of US and Europe.

The second topic under scrutiny is Population trends and demographic change, in which two questions are addressed. To answer the first question: 'How do demographic changes affect economic growth?', three factors are taken into account, i.e. saving, growth in labour force and education (education enrolment and expenditure). As far as education is concerned, the report argues that a decreasing proportion of

children in the total population allows a more intensive process of education for each child. As to the second question, whether fertility decline is a consequence of economic growth or family planning, the study pays tribute to both factors: a family planning programme can 'speed up' the fertility decline that normally follows increase in per capita income. Problems of a big proportion of elderly, sudden change in the family structure, rapid urbanization and international migration in countries with a decline in fertility are also subjects under discussion in this chapter.

Under the heading: Sustainable use of renewable resources, i.e. land, vegetation and water, it is discussed how an increase in the productive use of renewable resources to support growing populations and output is achieved without eroding the base of the resources. Overall pictures of food production and forest resources are combined with case studies of highly intensive agriculture in China and fisheries in the South China Sea. Amongst the important conclusions is the following: those countries which most readily accept to reuse resources as population grows and industrialization advances will be better off than those which waste their resources. China is seen as a preceptor to the region as an example of the former. Also Japan and Singapore have shown that substantive progress in handling renewable resources can be obtained simultaneously with economic prosperity.

In the final topic, The minerals and fuels future, it is shown that extractive resources like petroleum, natural gas and mineral ores provide energy and raw materials for factories, farms and homes in the region. The increase in the consumption of these resources has made some countries very dependent on outside supply sources while others have become dependent on the export earning which these products cast off, resulting in complementary trade between resource-poor countries in Northeast Asia (especially Japan which imports more oil and minerals than all other countries in Asia and the Pacific combined!) and resource rich countries in Southeast Asia and the Pacific. The effect of the oil shocks of the 1970s is

analysed on the different types of economies in the region: whereas it forced Japan and the NICs into producing low-energy, high tech products, the shocks wreaked havoc with weaker economies and created setbacks in their development. The report points out that if the present low fuel and mineral ore prices lead to reduced incentives of exploration, severe fluctuations in prices and supplies can be foreseen. Supply security will continue to present a strategic challenge for the resource-poor countries in the region.

Conclusion

Even though 75 per cent of the people of the region live in low-income countries, the report concludes that the reasons for optimism overshadows the gloomier aspects. Mentioned as positive aspects are political stability in many countries, decreased international tension, the world's highest growth rates in Japan, NIC and ASEAN member states, increasing industrialization and food production as well as stable fuels and mineral supplies, which all - combined with a decrease in the population growth - hold good for the future of the entire region. However, for many of the poor countries, only their potentials are bright and the adaptability to political, economic and social change is crucial for their capability to redeem these potentials. If they fail, regional peace is at stake, and - in the final analysis - so is world peace.

HIGHER EDUCATION EXPANSION IN ASIA

International Seminar on Higher Education, Hiroshima, 28-31 January 1985. Higher education expansion in Asia; report from the Seminar. Hiroshima, Research Institute for Higher Education, Hiroshima University, 1985. ix, 167 p.

The publication entitled Higher Education Expansion in Asia is the outcome of an international seminar on Asian higher education which the Research Institute for Higher Education (RIHE), Hiroshima University, Japan organized in 1985. The seminar was held within the framework of the UNESCO-sponsored Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education for Development in Asia and the Pacific. Since 1984, RIHE has launched a research project entitled 'A comprehensive Study of Higher Education Structures and its Functions in Asia and the Pacific' as an initial project in co-operation with UNESCO. This seminar was one in this series.

The publication contains an introductory article on prospects and problems in Asian higher education as well as seven articles on the same theme from China, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Thailand; two articles relate to Asian overseas students in the United States and in Japan; and lastly an article focuses on UNESCO's role in higher education in the Asia-Pacific region.

The introductory paper gives a comparative picture of the expansion of higher education in some of the above countries in terms of enrolment growth, problems of expansion particularly in relation to access, quality, relevance, finance and management. The article also touches briefly on the prospect of future development in higher education in these countries. It concludes that by the year 2000, a tremendous population increase can be expected and to cope with this, the present system of higher education has to be diversified.

The country papers are concise but informative, discussing in a similar style, higher education policies, programmes, curriculum, management, and other issues and problems as well as the trends of development. They are excellent sources of ready reference, providing data related to enrolment, the number and types of institutions, resource allocation and to other fields. Each article is followed by comments evoked by a respondent during the deliberations of the seminar. Some of the articles also provide a list of reference materials.

The papers indicate variations in the nature and level of development of higher education in analysed countries. Nevertheless, one concern that emerges clearly is that higher education is expanding fast in all of the countries in numerous ways and that this expansion will continue. In this process, the questions of quality, relevance, management efficiency, diversification of systems and allocation of resources are becoming more and more complex. All these have serious implications for the planning of higher education development.

The two articles on Asian overseas students in Japan and USA are interesting and informative. The majority of foreign students in Japan in 1983 were reported to be from Asia (8,411 out of a total of 10,428). A total of 2,082 students were under Mombushu (Japanese Government) scholarships. It is predicted that by 2000, the number of foreign students in Japan will rise to 100,000. The article also tries to explain why foreign students come to Japan and gives a report on how the Asian students evaluate the Japanese higher education system.

The paper on Asian students in the United States primarily focuses on why they prefer to study there. It reports that in 1978, 55.7 per cent of the foreign students in USA were from Asia. The following reasons are given for their large numbers: improving Asian-American political links, increased volume of economic exchange, sharp increase in Asian immigration to USA, an increasing similarity in the structure and content of Asian and American educational systems and the

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absorptive capacity of the American higher education system. The article contains various tables.

The last article briefly explains UNESCO's priorities in higher education in the global context and its Regional Co-operative Programme in Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific. It also gives an indication of the various types of higher education activities that are being carried out by UNESCO's regional offices in Asia and the Pacific.

LONG-TERM EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Raza, Moonis, ed. Educational planning: a long-term perspective.
New Delhi, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1986. xxix, 488 p.

Educational Planning: A Long-term Perspective is a collection of papers presented at a regional seminar on long-term educational planning. The seminar was organized by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) and National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) in New Delhi in January 1982. The book is edited by Professor Moonis Raza who was then Director of NIEPA and is presently Vice-chancellor of Delhi University.

The book opens with an introductory chapter by Moonis Raza and Jandhyala B.G. Tilak of NIEPA, under the title of 'Long-term Educational Planning: An Introductory Overview'. The rest of the book is divided into four parts. Part I: The Global Context, containing four papers on some of the major concerns of education with an international perspective. Part II: The Societal Context, presents another four papers mostly dealing with demographic dimensions of educational planning and inter-relationship of education and employment. Part III: The Technological Context, brings together four papers generally dealing with the role of science and technology in educational development. Part IV: Approaches and Models, which contains seven papers is devoted to methodological considerations such as system analysis, forecasting techniques, quantitative methods, and other techniques which could be used in operationalizing educational plans.

The authors, in their introductory overview, have tried to broaden the concept of socio-economic planning to include education. Education is a process which develops 'human capital' and plays a crucial role in national development by providing the manpower

requirements of the economy. This is why the authors operate with a term like 'human investment revolution in economic thought'. Educational planning, minimizes the mismatch between the output of the educational system and the input of the job market.

The mere proportion of investment in education requires safeguards against its impact on the national economy. Besides, equity is now a national goal and education is regarded as 'the great equalizer'. These and similar considerations in the book underline the need and significance of long-term planning for education. When one realizes that the initial investment in education in each generation takes about 30 years to start producing returns or dividends, it becomes evident that long-term educational planning cannot be ignored. That has been the justification for organizing the seminar and discussing various issues and methods related to such planning in education.

Although this book contains valuable contributions by a number of UNESCO and Indian experts in educational planning, it should not be taken as a complete handbook with comprehensive coverage of the subject area. Nor is it a textbook to teach the students, in a systematic manner, what is educational planning and how it is done. However, this compilation is a very useful book of readings for students of educational planning. Some chapters or papers are heavily based on Western sources and some others are reflecting Asian and particularly Indian experiences. The last two parts of the book are more concerned with practical and operational aspects of planning and contain treatment of methodologies in simple and clear language.

With the wide spread of the practice of educational planning in the developing countries as an integral part of planning for development, this compilation could prove a very useful reference and source book.

MEDIA DEVELOPMENT IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC

Abundo, Romeo B. Print and broadcast media in the South Pacific.
Singapore, Asian Mass Communication Research and Information
Centre, 1985. xii, 79 p.

Media development has a high priority in the developing countries. Both for the purpose of keeping their populations informed about their own affairs and for that of maintaining the vital link with their neighbours and the outside world, developing countries need to build up their media capabilities.

For the island countries of the South Pacific, this need is more acute and immediate. Located thousands of miles away from the continental land areas and having their own territories spread over vast ocean areas, the island countries of Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Fiji, Western Samoa and Tonga requested UNESCO to undertake a study on the state-of-the-art of the print and broadcast media in the South Pacific.

Under contract from UNESCO, the AMIC commissioned the study which was carried out by Mr. Romeo Abundo, a long time journalist, a former General Manager of Philippines News Service and currently the Editorial Director of the Press Foundation of Asia.

This book is based on the author's research, observations and interviews conducted in the South Pacific during November 1984. Five countries in the South Pacific were covered in the study. These were: Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Fiji, Western Samoa and Tonga.

Overall, the printed media seem to play a minor role in the communication efforts of the various countries in the region. Broadcasting, particularly radio, is given priority in terms of funding and support from the government which exercises sole ownership

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and control over most communication facilities in these countries. Historical developments have a hand in this, since 'long before many of these islands gained independence or when newspapers were just getting started, radio broadcasting was already setting a track record in relaying news and government information to the main and outer islands'.

The broadcast services offered in these countries follow the same general format: 'News, understandably, is given top priority, along with commentaries and government announcements. Interviews with high ranking government officials and proceedings in parliament or national assembly are becoming regular fare. These programmes are handled by the news and current affairs division'.

As for the print media, only Papua New Guinea and Fiji have daily newspapers (two each). These newspapers are English and there is no local-language daily in the region. These English-language newspapers carry: hard news, features, sports, business, entertainment, home, editorial and local affairs. The main focus of newspaper coverage is national government affairs.

Though there was an absence of daily newspapers, weekly publications on the other hand, were found in all the five countries covered by the study: Papua New Guinea has two; Solomon Islands, two; Fiji, three; Tonga, two; and Western Samoa, ten. These weeklies are published in English, Pidgin, Fijian, Hindi, Tongan and Samoan. Only in Western Samoa were some privately owned publications noted by the author. In addition, some smaller-type publications in newsletter format or in mimeographed sheets are circulated occasionally/monthly in Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands.

Only the dailies have been noted to have adequate staff and up-to-date production facilities. All other publications suffer from a lack of personnel and secure sources of funding. The governments in these countries attempted to set up community newsletters in the 1970s, but a good number of these folded up because of high production costs. This may also

be indicative of the lack of priority given to printed publications as compared to government support for broadcasting activities in these countries.

However, the support for radio broadcasting also leaves much to be desired. According to the author, 'Annually, the networks seek an upward adjustment in their annual budget but such requests remain unacted upon, despite the governments' recognition of radio's vital role in information dissemination. In many cases, provisions for new equipment and additional personnel, not to mention studio renovation, have to wait many years before these become available or are effected, if at all. While all the networks accept advertisements, despite government funding or subsidy, all their commercial revenues are diverted to the government general fund. They are not allowed to retain even a small percentage of this revenue for improvement and expansion of service'.

Given these poor conditions of mass communication in the Pacific region, the author has made the following suggestions:

1. Both the print and broadcast media should pool their resources to enable them to subscribe to the international news agencies or meet the cost of news exchanges such as those provided by the Asia Pacific News Network (ANN).
2. Radio broadcasts should encourage newspaper readership, particularly in the remote islands and trading vessels plying the inter-island routes should regularly ferry newspapers as a public service.
3. There should be a reduction or temporary suspension of existing duties on imported materials used in the printing of newspapers.
4. The various communication bodies, broadcast stations and government run newspapers should be allowed to operate more independently through legislative fiat.

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5. In areas where a number of equally weak publications or weeklies exist, steps can be taken to assist them to merge or consolidate their organizations and resources in order to strengthen their position as reliable and important sources of information for the people.

In the contemporary world of instant communication and global trading and commerce, no country or group of countries can afford to remain cut off from the mainstreams of the global mass communication network. The South Pacific countries know it and are determined to do something about it. This UNESCO sponsored study is destined to play a vital role in the development of their mass communication systems.

INTERFACING EDUCATION AND TECHNOLOGY

Birch, Ian Keith Falconer; Lally, Mike; Punch, Keith. Interface between education and technology. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1985. 111 p. (Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development - Education and Polity 1).

An Australian team of academics has examined the interface between education and technology, and considered in particular policies proposed or already in place in Australia. A survey of current and recent developments in that country with respect to the interface was undertaken, with particular attention being paid to policy initiatives adopted by governments, industry, academic institutions and the community. The interface was reviewed in the light of alternative futures. International and national futures scenarios were explored with particular reference to the shorter term alternative futures possible for technology and education and their importance to the interfacing of the two.

The issues raised by the education-technology interface were explored, many of which have not yet been comprehensively reported on in the literature, far less appropriately researched. An annotated bibliography was compiled in addition to a full bibliography. The authors currently hold approximately 400 articles and have references for another 140 articles on education and technology published in the 1980s.

Very early in the study it became apparent that little more than an exploratory statement was the likely outcome of the research given the enormous quantity of literature, the numbers concerned with the interface and their very diverse interests, the lack of any formal mechanism for disseminating information on the interface, the geographical and intellectual scope of the Australian debate and the restraints associated with completing a report. In view

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of this, the research represented key select developments in the discussion of the interface and treated the question of futures in a descriptive rather than analytical fashion. A preference for mapping the significant issues was adopted, given their number, leaving their resolutions to future research.

In the course of this research, a number of issues which result from the interface between education and technology was identified. These were all issues requiring resolution and these have been treated under a number of headings.

Policy. Technology raises crucial policy questions, ranging from philosophical policy considerations (should education respond to economic or social values?), to concrete policy decisions concerning the hardware to be used in schools. The range of policy issues is immense, including consideration of educational participation rates in the light of technological development and the consideration of an educational response to the impact of technology on the labour market. The implications of technology for tertiary education and for research and development need to be considered in policy decisions, as does the relationship between these institutions and the private sector. Policy must take into account the interests of unions, parents' groups, the non-government schools and, of course, the private sector. It must also address the issue of cost-effectiveness.

The education-technology interface raises policy issues not simply for State and Federal Education Departments but also for the private sector, unions, other government departments such as Science, Technology, Industry and Commerce, and, at the local level, individual schools and teachers.

Systems. Systems issues concern the educational means or channels on which technology impacts. Systems issues raise questions regarding structures. What are the most appropriate structures for technology education? Should this be the role of schools, technical and further education, or should it be put in the hands of the private sector? It raises questions

concerning structural relationships including those between education and technology planning at government level, Federal and State Government relationships and intersectoral connections. Technology also raises systems issues for distance and external education.

Curriculum and technological resources. Questions raised by the interface between education and technology have important implications for the curriculum. Does talk of technology education and upgrading technological skills mean educating people *about* technology, educating people in *using* technological resources or education them *in* technology, design and applications?

Learning. An extension of the curriculum issues raises questions concerning the impact of technology on learning particularly in relation to computers. For instance: What are the learning theory assumptions behind the use of computers as a teaching aid? How does the medium affect the information imparted? Do computers affect cognitive processes? Does the computer programme the student or does the student programme the computer? We also need to ask questions about basic skills development. For instance: What are the implications when students use word processors with grammar and spelling checking programmes? Similarly, what are the implications of individualized learning with a computer on the development of social skills?

Access. Access to technology education raises diverse issues. These range from questions of youth, income, security, and financial incentives for retraining (what are the most appropriate structures for retraining, particularly for the disadvantaged?) to issues concerning the access of students, particularly girls, to computers in the school computing facility. Consideration needs to be given to the access the community has to technological courses and resources, and to examine the implications of technology on the formal education system. Does technology, for example, have the potential to de-structure education, thus freeing it from set times and places

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and obvia ing the need for the current institutional structures?

Teacher roles. Technology raises the issues of teacher-student interaction in the use of computers, for instance, and requires a determination as to how to make the most of limited computing resources available. It goes to the very heart of the question of teaching styles. Perhaps, however, the most crucial issues in relation to teacher roles and technology are those related to in-service and pre-service training. Which sector of education should have priority? Should it be primary, secondary or post-secondary? Should all teachers be in-serviced on computers or only mathematics and science teachers? Also involved are questions as to how much teaching staff need to know about technology as it becomes automated in practice, which again influences decisions on the number of appropriate technology courses for teacher training programmes to be undertaken.

Conclusion

The questions and issues raised by a consideration of the interface between technology and education are multifaceted and multidimensional. They can be treated from several different perspectives. They involve many aspects and components of the social, political, economic and educational systems. It follows from this that any adequate consideration of the interface needs to be interdisciplinary in its orientation.

Two features of the debate and discussion about technology and education in Australia seem clear. The first is that the whole question has now moved to the centre stage, perhaps for the first time.

The second is that, despite its recent emergence, the discussion and debate seem presently to be in a state of stagnation, and are characterized by a lack of progress. The same issues are raised repeatedly, albeit in different forms and contexts. But there seems to be little move towards ordering and integrating them. The result is a certain ad hoc, non-cumulative quality to the debate. There exists a series

of partial viewpoints, selectively presented according to the perception of the individual or organization. There does not exist a common perspective or framework for viewing the education-technology interface, and its many interrelated issues.

The dominant impression from this study is that the education system is in a reactive role regarding technology and technological development. Primarily, the education system, at all levels, merely responds to technology - not only in terms of technological development, but also, it seems, in terms of policy matters regarding the interface between education and technology. The extent to which this state of affairs is desirable is a matter which should be carefully considered. Clearly, developments in technology will proceed outside of, and independent of, the educational system. But, in many respects, education could take a more positive, future-oriented and proactive role regarding technology, both with respect to education for technology and technology for education. If this does not happen, one consequence is that the education system will continue to be pushed and pulled, in an ad hoc fashion, in its responses to technological development. Another is that much education for and about technology will go on outside the formal education system. This, too, may not necessarily be undesirable, but it is a question which deserves examination.

A useful dictionary definition of interface includes the ideas of 'common boundary or meeting point between areas' and a general term to describe 'the connecting links between two systems'. The question arises as to how much of an interface there actually is between education and technology in Australia. It is tempting to conclude that there is no real interface at present in Australia, or at least much less than there could be. Certainly the weight of the evidence accumulated in this study leads to the view that there could be a very much more pronounced education-technology interface. At the same time, the previously noted level of concern with the topic

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at this time in Australia suggests a general desire to increase and strengthen the interface.

This, in turn, points to at least three needs. The *first* is to develop an awareness of the need for a greater degree of interface. This process is clearly under way, as indicated by the various conferences, working parties, reports and so on, which are in evidence. The *second* is to promote a consideration of the structural arrangements which best enhance - and ultimately reflect - an increased interface. It is not, as is often claimed, simply a matter of making centralized educational structures in Australia more flexible and responsive to the needs and developments of a technological society. That may be part of the question. But it is also, and much more, a matter of designing structural arrangements both within and between organizations and institutions, and also between the educational and technological systems generally, that reflect the desire and need for increased two-way interaction between education and technology in order to enhance the possibility of that interaction. The *third* is to recognize the importance of developing a perception of the present and possible education-technology interface, which is common, or at least largely common, to the various interested parties. It is noted that the number and variety of general and specific issues involved strongly emphasizes the need for a common conceptual framework, or model, through which to view the education-technology interface. Once such a need is recognized, ways of meeting that need can be proposed.

Policy on technology and education in Australia is presented as a somewhat unsystematic process, occurring without an organized consideration of alternative future paths. While there is lively debate and discussion, there has not yet been a concerted and comprehensive consideration of policy issues. At the same time, developments are occurring which have important implications for the future. Many examples of this could be given, but a commonly expressed one concerns the direction and degree of 'technological literacy' of the generation of children presently

in schools. With microcomputers and electronic games now commonplace, children are learning something about technology. But careful thought is required to determine what the appropriate experiences in schools should be. The obvious response may not be the most appropriate. It is now becoming clear, for example, that teaching children computer programming in schools may be dysfunctional for their future involvement with technology. Such questions require both careful analysis and a consideration of the future, and have important policy implications for many different aspects of education. A significant volume of material on education and technology now exists in Australia and more will undoubtedly appear. It is important that it be continuously brought together, integrated and evaluated. There is at present no facility for this to be done, a point which became clear when this project began. What is needed, therefore, is a national clearing house for information on the education-technology interface, with the functions of assembling, co-ordinating and evaluating the relevant material, as it appears. Such a clearing house could subsequently become international, at least on a regional basis with respect to Southeast Asia and the Pacific. If located in a tertiary institution, it could also provide the foundation for a research and study centre into the whole question of technology, education and the future. Immediate tasks for such a centre would include taking a leading role in the development of an overall conceptual framework for viewing the education-technology interface, and conducting research into the sorts of questions raised earlier.

SMASHING THE COMMUNAL POT IN CHINA

Wang Guichen, Zhau Qiren (and others) Smashing the communal pot - formulation and development of China's rural responsibility system. Beijing, New World Press, 1985. 200 p. (China studies series).

Since 1979, marked changes have taken place in China under the newly introduced responsibility system. In an effort to overcome some of the major defects of the collective economy, various forms of contract systems which delegate responsibility in production to the rural households by linking remuneration with output were widely adopted. The decade-old collective organization of production brigades in which everyone 'helps oneself to the communal pot' was rapidly dismantled.

A production responsibility system usually refers to a managerial system, in which the duties and rights of the production enterprise, unit and individuals in the productive process are clearly stipulated. This system requires the compact organization and management of production and the development of an appropriate division of labour in accordance with the needs of production and the skills of each worker.

In agriculture, present day production teams in rural China embrace on the average 20 to 30 households with a total labour force of 40 to 50 persons. Each team is responsible for cultivating 200 to 300 mu (= 1/1st hectare) of land and engaging in other related production tasks. The introduction of the responsibility system in rural agricultural communities is characterized by the emphasis placed on clearer division of labour and the use of material incentives.

There are many kinds of responsibility systems in agricultural production: perennial or seasonal responsibility systems that depend on the duration

of a specific responsibility; collective or individual responsibility; collective or individual responsibility systems that depend on the number of persons involved; comprehensive or specialized production responsibility systems that depend on the nature and scope of work; and work or output responsibility systems that hinge on the completion of a task or the production of output.

At present, the most common forms of production responsibility system adopted in China's collective agricultural enterprises are the work or output systems that are related or unrelated to output.

The work responsibility system, sometimes called the contract system by task, includes what is considered a contract for work in a small sector with remuneration for fulfilling a fixed production quota. The work group or individual contracted is responsible for fulfilling one or several jobs in the production process within a predetermined time period. When the production quota is fulfilled and the quality standards are found to meet requirements, the work group is paid the contracted amount. Those who managed to surpass the quota are rewarded and those who failed to finish the job on time or whose work is not up to the required standard are penalized.

Under this system, the work can be performed by perennial, temporary or seasonal work groups or contractors. Some communes or brigades have adopted a variety of the responsibility system that fixes for a given work group the production quota, time limit, quality standards and remuneration. Some other communes and brigades may assign to a small work group a set of related tasks that are to be completed according to a work plan. The completion of each stage of the work plan is checked and remuneration meted out by instalments.

The output responsibility system, or contract system by output, is characterized by a method where work groups, or individuals, undertake a production task and are held responsible for the final result of

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production - the output, in value and profit. Remuneration is calculated as a function of output. Overfulfilment of production quota is therefore further rewarded, but failure to meet requirements will result in penalization.

Contracting a job to a group is a form evolved from contracting a production quota to a group. It does not necessitate the usual fixing of three contracts: for labour, production and costs. In its stead, the work group should aim first of all at fulfilling the state purchase quota. Once the public accumulated stocks and reserves are handed over to the collectivity, all remaining products and income are placed at the disposal of the work group.

Further diversifications of the system have been introduced. Responsibility was being given to individual households, which are often contracted for carrying out specialized production tasks and the cultivation of special crops such as minor cash crops. In an effort to improve the management of land, remote, barren or small plots of land along the edges of villages are also contracted out to the households. The forms of the responsibility system continue to develop and change with shifts in the productive forces and in social-economic conditions.

According to statistics, by December 1982 92 per cent of the total number of basic accounting units of China's rural communes and brigades had adopted the contract system in which output was linked with remuneration. Of these, 78.66 per cent had introduced the method of contracting fixed production quotas or work to households and 10.9 per cent were contracting fixed production quotas to individual labourers. Other forms of linking remuneration with output and systems in which output and remuneration were not linked made up the remaining portion of the total.

Preliminary results obtained since the past few years show that productivity and quality have invariably increased for the communes and brigades in which one form or another of the responsibility system have been introduced. Though different forms

of the system were adopted under different conditions, certain advantages and disadvantages of each form have also been observed. This has also resulted in the gradual shifts from the work responsibility system to the output responsibility system.

More and more, the important roles played by the responsibility system are becoming apparent. Among these, there are namely the: (i) facilitation of the fulfilment of production plans; (ii) strengthening of business accounting; (iii) raising of labour productivity; (iv) strengthening of democratic management; and (v) implementation of the principle of distribution 'to each according to his work'.

In a review of past experiences in the implementation of the responsibility system it was confirmed that the production responsibility system of the collective agricultural economy should not be considered as merely a short-term measure of expedience, but rather a long-term solution. However, during its introduction and gradual spread in the rural areas, there may be a need to ensure that the form to be adopted changes with the environment and requirements.

As a more evolved form of the responsibility system, the family contract system has been gaining popularity. It has a number of forms, varying from contracting jobs to households without unified income distribution by the production team, to contracting output quotas with unified income distribution, and to contracting output quotas to capable individual labourers. In each of these forms, the single peasant household is taken as the contracting and management unit.

Compared to other forms, contracting jobs to households gives the peasants more autonomy in production and greater material incentives. It is also the simplest form of the responsibility system and better suits the present level of the productive forces in most rural areas and the level of management capabilities of rural cadres and peasants. Concrete results of the effectiveness of this system, especially as

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applied to the economically backward areas, have been outstanding.

There are two main reasons for which the peasants welcome the family contract system. *Firstly*, they have autonomy in labour and management, in that they are in a position to plan their work and adopt measures suitable to the time and local conditions. *Secondly*, their incomes are directly linked with the fruits of their labour. This has also checked the malpractice of some cadres in making use of the complicated and overly-elaborate procedures under the unified distribution system to discourage initiatives and squander collective funds.

The low level of China's agricultural productive forces continues to call for smaller management units and decentralized and dispersed systems of management. The flexibility of the family contract system in adapting to different levels of productive forces and its effect on increased specialization of agricultural households is gradually changing the rural landscape in China.

The practice of contracting jobs to households also implies readjustments of the relationship between agricultural production and collective ownership. The collective economy based on production teams in people's communes must undergo a certain transformation to fit this system.

First of all, as the peasant household changes from a consumer unit in the collective economy into an economic unit with independent management and accounting and the responsibility for its own gains and losses, the status of the individual peasants changes from that of pure labourer to that of labourer-manager. Under the guidance of state plans and the unified management of the collective, each individual household has the right to define its own orientation and form of management, to set its own management and production plans, to adopt measures to increase output, to buy materials for production, to accumulate funds, to make investments and to allocate the labour forces of the family.

Secondly, as independent producer-managers, the peasants acquire the right to use and manage the collectively owned land, water conservation projects, large farm machinery and equipment, and other means of production. Individual ownership of such means is also on the rise, which may result in the uneven spread of these items among peasant households.

Thirdly, the principle of 'to each according to his work' is losing its place as the sole method of distribution. As long as the potential for increasing agricultural output has not been fully tapped, different amounts or uneven quality in the means of production will give rise to different soil fertility and output. Differential land earnings will prevail.

One of the major problems that emerged during the implementation of the responsibility system is namely the uneven level of implementation between and within localities. Some contractual arrangements are not effective in the sense that the period stipulated may be too short for land cultivation, targets set for specialized tasks are not reasonable, or there are disparities in the remuneration of labour. Collective property, facilities and secondary production may also be damaged and affected. There are considerable tensions due to unclear definition and improper handling of the relationship between the State, the collective and individuals. For families experiencing material difficulties, there is inadequate care covering food, clothing, medical care, housing and burial expenses which were usually borne by the commune. In some cases, the local leadership is either ineffective or simply absent, due to lack of initiatives mainly as a result of unreasonable pay and inadequate living conditions.

Emphasis is being placed on solving these problems. Among the peasant communities, there is the on-going selection of the system that is most adapted to the local conditions, and its 'stabilization' as a long-term system. It is only based on the premise of stability that systems can be further improved. Reciprocally, only when there is improvement can they be further stabilized. It is certain that with the

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rapid shifts in the productive forces in China, new contradictions and problems will arise, which must be further solved. Greater effort will be put into studying and summing up the experiences, for wider dissemination.

Five case studies on typical applications of the responsibility system are included. They are entitled respectively: 'A study of specialized households'; 'A development strategy for China's agriculture'; 'A development strategy for China's forestry'; 'A development strategy for China's animal husbandry'; and 'A development strategy for China's fishery'.

WOMEN AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHINA

Croll, Elizabeth. Women and rural development in China. Geneva, International Labour Office, 1985. 172 p.

This study is one in an ILO series of monographs on women, work and development, which are undertaken within the framework of the World Employment Programme. It is divided into two parts: the *first* outlining the main characteristics of the development policies and the reorganization of the rural sector in China from 1949 to 1978, and analyzing its effects on the participation of women in agricultural production and labour and their bearing, caring of children and family maintenance; the *second* examining each of the more recent political and socio-economic rural policies and programmes in China and the implications that these have for the dual roles of peasant women in production and child-bearing and caring, covering the period 1978-1984.

The major assumption of the Government of China in developing a strategy to redefine the position of women was that the goals of national and socialist development and the women's movement are interdependent. Therefore the Government had mapped out a comprehensive and integrated programme which allowed for the development of a new legal, material and ideological base for the emancipation of women, as well as the growth of the women's movement.

The Government of China's overall strategy to carry out rural development included the policy to effect the entry of women into social production and the redefinition of the position of women. Both were necessary for the expansion and diversification of production and for the status of women themselves.

Over the first 25 years, the female labour force increased substantially, varying in degree according to the cropping regions in China and the diversity in

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economic pursuits. The aim of the systematic and comprehensive attempt to encourage the participation of women in agriculture was to provide conditions favourable to their entry into social production. It was assumed that this would alter the traditional sexual division of labour and reallocate socio-economic resources in favour of women. However, the provision of community and welfare services and the reduction of the degree by which women's unpaid labour should subsidize the rural economy, are hampered by a real or assumed shortage of capital.

Women were the main producers in agriculture in many areas. They received individual wages and their health and levels of education and skill training improved. Attempts were made to reduce their household responsibilities and to encourage them to take part in the collective decision-making processes. However, there still existed problem areas and factors which interfered with and discouraged women's access to and control over the strategic resources of society. They were:

1. The relation of social production to female status;
2. The structure and function of the rural household; and
3. The separation of women into female solidarity groups.

According to the study, it was ideological constraints, rather than material constraints, that were the main obstacle for further changes in the position and attitude of women in China. The Confucian ideology advocating male supremacy and the division of labour into the domestic and public sphere was criticized through a mass campaign. Since, in China, the countryside tended to form a repository of traditional and conservative customs and habits, and, coupled with material constraints in rural areas, rural women were considered more backward, intensive efforts had to be directed to redefining the role and status of women in the rural social field.

In spite of attempts to introduce a new ideology of equality and liberation of women in China, the structure and functions of individual rural households and kin groups continued to maintain the status quo of the subordination of women in rural areas, due mainly to four factors:

1. Sons continued to be regarded as the only members of the households and kin groups who permanently contributed to the economy of both;
2. Women continued to be exchanged between households, e.g., the custom of wives moving to live in husbands' households;
3. The maintenance of the household and rural economy relied on the unpaid labour of women; and
4. The training of young women in economic and political skills was still a poor form of investment for local communities.

The attempt to foster solidarity among women, which did not receive support during the Cultural Revolution, was revived. The functions of local solidarity groups among women were to raise the consciousness of women both as members of a class and as women. It was in their own groups that women gained confidence to actively negotiate a new position for themselves. Hence women experienced for themselves that the presence of female solidarity groups was beneficial to their own socio-economic and political interests and the furthering of those interests in society.

After 1978, China embarked on a new phase in her development strategy, an era of 'socialist modernization', aiming at accelerating the development process and turning China into a powerful and socialist society by developing four sectors of the economy: agriculture, industry, science and technology, and defence. These were known as the 'Four Modernizations'. In the readjustment of agriculture, four new programmes have been introduced:

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1. The rural responsibility system;
2. The expansion of domestic sidelines or individual household production;
3. The diversification of agriculture; and
4. The mechanization of agriculture.

Women's support was emphasized in implementing these programmes. There was a demand for the women to improve their contribution to national growth in terms of skills, enthusiasm and productivity. It is assumed that the new development strategy would automatically benefit women, and would help them to achieve complete emancipation.

The policies of socialist modernization with their prior allocation of investments in and development of agriculture, mechanization, light industry, community services and more adequate provisioning for consumption may well develop those employment opportunities for women and reduce the domestic demands on the labour of women. Women will probably share in any raised standards of livelihood, the rise in economic incentives and rewards, improvement in diet and health, and access to new services and consumer goods. However, women's individual welfare will be directly linked to that of their households, and inequality between households is likely to rise as a result of the new policies. The shift in controls and operation of production in the household as the basic unit of production is likely to relocate many of women's productive activities to the household. The degree to which this will give them a greater degree of control and autonomy will depend on the division of labour within the household. The net result of current reforms in the rural economy may be to increase the economic demands on the peasant household, and to increase the value placed on peasant women's labour. This may both benefit and penalize the women themselves.

In 1978, the national women's movement set for itself three major tasks:

1. The socialization and modernization of domestic labour to reduce physical labour of women;
2. The socialization of children; and
3. The adoption of new attitudes towards the family and marriage.

Although production continues to have priority, the present Government is also concerned to revalue reproduction. The family has been reaffirmed as the basic socio-political institution. 'Family education' has become an important goal in China's Government. The Government has thus called for the development of new norms of social behaviour based on 'high ideals, moral integrity, education and a sense of discipline'.

The family planning policies, more than any other single set of present policies, will fundamentally alter the future roles of women in the family and in society. The most far-reaching policy introduced in 1979 is the single-child family programme, its distinctive features being the punitive economic sanctions to be taken against those not adhering to this policy, and the extended degree of state intervention in the reproductive process and familial affairs. Although this policy contributes to greater participation of women in economic, political and social activities outside the home, yet there is an increase in the incidence of female infanticide and violence against mothers of daughters.

In spite of the encouragement given to women to participate in the political process and decision-making bodies, the percentage of women at all administrative levels is low and declining. The Women's Federation, with the support of the Government, has emphasized the need to train women cadres who can undertake additional responsibilities to represent, defend and protect women's interests.

The author concluded her study by indicating that many of the policies which intimately affect the productive and child-bearing activities of women in China are sometimes marked by the near absence of any

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substantial analysis of their repercussions for the conditions of female agricultural production and child-bearing. Policies to do with women or gender-specific demands, she commended, continue to be predominantly defined in terms of ideological education and popularization without reference to broader economic policies. So these policies specifically aimed at women do not seem to take into consideration the structures that bind the ideal relations between female and male colleagues, the generations, husband and wife or mother and child, and without reference to economic policies which directly affect these relations.

Even more than in the past, the effectiveness of the ideologies of equality, free choice of marriage and democratic familial relations may be limited by the fact that current economic policies encourage the maintenance or even elaboration of domestic and kin groups. The author's analysis is that the multifarious repercussions of current policies may both benefit and penalize peasant women. How the advantages and disadvantages of this present strategy of rural development will balance out in the long run must be a question for the future.

SEVENTH FIVE-YEAR PLAN (1985-90) OF INDIA

India. Planning Commission. Seven Five-Year Plan 1985-90. New Delhi, 1985. 2v.

India embarked on planned economic development in the 1950s when it set up a Planning Commission and introduced the concept of 5-year plans. In 1985, India entered the Seventh Five-Year Plan.

The Plan document for the period 1985-1990 is published by the Government of India in two volumes, with a Foreword by the Prime Minister who is also the Chairman of the Planning Commission.

The new Plan is built on the foundations of the achievements of the previous plan, registering 5 per cent growth rate of the GDP. It is essentially an anti-poverty programme with emphasis on agricultural development and economic and technological modernization. The Seventh Plan is set within a 15-year perspective. It seeks, by the year 2000, to virtually eliminate poverty and illiteracy, achieve near full employment, secure satisfaction of the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter, and provide health for all.

The Plan focuses on five major problem areas as under:

1. Rehabilitation and revitalization of the agricultural credit system;
2. Substantial improvement in the quality of agricultural and rural development administration;
3. Re-examination of the content of the family welfare programme to bring about a faster reduction in the rate of population growth;

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4. Improvement in productivity, efficiency, and internal resource generation of the public sector enterprises; and
5. Adoption of effective measures to bring about meaningful participation of the people in all phases of national development.

Volume 1 of this document is devoted to perspective, objectives, strategy, macro-dimensions and resources. The first chapter reviews the achievements of the Sixth Plan; the second outlines the development perspective oriented towards the year 2000; the objectives and strategies of the Seven.' Plan are the focus of the third chapter; Chapters 4 and 5 are devoted to the questions of financing the Plan and balance of payments respectively; the concluding chapter gives the framework of the Economic Policy.

Sectoral programmes of Development are detailed in the 2nd volume, divided into 21 chapters and running into 421 pages. From the point of view of UNESCO. The following chapters are of particular relevance:

- Chapter 2: Rural Development and Poverty Alleviation Programmes;
- Chapter 5: Employment, Manpower Planning and Labour Policy;
- Chapter 9: Communications, Information and Broadcasting;
- Chapter 10: Education, Culture and Sports;
- Chapter 14: Socio-Economic Programmes for Women;
- Chapter 15: Socio-Economic Programmes for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes;
- Chapter 16: Special Area Development Programmes;
- Chapter 17: Science and Technology;
- Chapter 18: Environment and Ecology; and
- Chapter 19: Minimum Needs Programme.

The chapter on Education, Culture and Sports reports the progress made in the field of education since

independence in 1947 and reviews the achievements during the Sixth Plan. It says that 22 million additional children were enrolled while the target was fixed for 18 million; an additional 3 million children were enrolled under the programme of non-formal education. The Centre funded 386 rural functional literacy projects, and also assisted 380 voluntary agencies and 49 universities in their adult education programme.

On all fronts there has been a quantitative expansion: institutions, enrolment, girls education, spread of literacy, vocationalization, and higher education. Yet, there is a 'staggering backlog': the illiteracy level at the end of Sixth Plan was as high as 63 per cent; 50 million children will have to be enrolled in schools; and more vocationalization has to occur.

The Seventh Plan, having reviewed the situation of education in the country, has identified the following thrust areas:

- i) achievement of universal primary education;
- ii) eradication of illiteracy in the age group 15-35 years;
- iii) vocationalization and skill training programmes at different levels of education;
- iv) upgradation of standards and modernization of education;
- v) provision of facilities for education of high quality in every district; and
- vi) removal of obsolescence in technical education.

This is expected to be achieved through effective decentralized planning, organizational reform, promotion of non-formal and open learning systems, adoption of low-cost alternatives and optimum use of resources, forging links with the industry, mobilization of community resources, and societal involvement.

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Guided by these considerations, the Government of India attempted a comprehensive appraisal of the existing educational scene and subjected it to a country-wide debate. Based on this exercise, which involved a large number of people from all walks of life, the Government formulated a new *National Policy of Education: 1986* which would replace the old 1968 policy. Though the new policy is not a part of this document under review, the reader is advised to consult the new National Policy Document, as it would guide the future action in the field of education in India.

The chapter on Education also deals with Art and Culture, and with Youth and Sports. As envisaged in the Plan, seven zonal cultural centres are proposed to be set up, which would, among others, organize traditional fairs and festivals. The work on preservation, documentation, and conservation of cultural heritage will be further advanced. Folk and tribal arts will be promoted. The National Museum of Man (Rashtriya Manav Sangrahalaya) will be completed during the Plan, and an Indira Gandhi National Centre for Art will be set up in Delhi, which will serve as a resource centre, a data base for arts and a venue for the proposed national theatre.

For the 200 million young people in the age group 15-34 years, constituting 30 per cent of the population, the Plan envisages to further strengthen the two existing programmes, namely the National Service Scheme (NSS) and the Nehru Yuvak Kendras (NYKs). In addition, the newly adopted resolution on the National Sports Policy will be translated into action.

The Plan outlay for education, art, culture, and sports and youth services totals Rs 63,826.5 million*

The distribution for the three sub-sectors is shown on the following page (figures are in million Indian Rs).

* Approximately 12.64 Indian rupees (Rs) = One US dollar.

Seventh five year plan of India

Sub-sector	Contribution of			Total (million Rs.)
	Centre	States	Union Territories	
Education	17,386.4	32,513.0	4,671.6	54,571.0
Arts and culture	3,500.0	1,148.6	172.6	4,821.2
Sports and youth services	3,000.0	1,225.5	208.8	4,434.3
Grand Total	23,886.4	34,887.1	5,053.0	63,826.5

CHILD CARE FACILITIES IN INDIA

Swaminathan, Mina. Who cares?: A study of child care facilities for low-income working women in India. New Delhi, Centre for Women's Development Studies, 1985. xi, 159 p.

The Labour Laws of India make it an obligation for employers in factories, mines and plantations to provide maternity benefits and creche facilities to their women workers. However, this right is available to only 3-4 per cent of working women, even in the organized sector of the economy. Also in this sector, those primarily in the service industry are not entitled to these benefits because the Labour Laws do not apply to them. For some 94 per cent of working women in other sectors, such as agriculture, no such benefits exist at all, since they are not beneficiaries of the Labour Laws or of services by voluntary and other agencies.

The current document provides a penetrating study of child care facilities for low income working women in India. In particular, the study stresses that the needs of child care and education cannot be seen in isolation from the changing position of women and families, in the context of the realities of women occupying work positions, and the increase of nuclear family units.

The study provides a perspective for interpretation of data and observations, starting with a demographic review to assess the magnitude of the problem. An in-depth analysis is then made of each of the two main sectors providing child care services, the mandatory (by the Labour Laws), and the voluntary. This analysis includes a general overview as well as intensive case studies of contrasting examples, which highlight attributes of the child care services in specific terms. Finally, an evaluative portrait is made of the child care services in the context of the magnitude

of the problem, with relevant comparisons established with similar services in other countries. The analysis is also placed in the context of theoretical perspectives applicable to child development and social perspectives applicable to India. The final chapter makes significant programme proposals for alternative and improved child care services, and for future research and documentation.

The comparisons across the various sub-sectors in the statutory sector (governed by the Laws) as well as the overall review and analysis, point to a number of fundamental weaknesses, even though some sub-sectors, such as the plantations, provide – in relative terms – somewhat better child care services than other sub-sectors, such as coal mines. Further, even the best child care services are very far from what may be defined as optimal: coverage is meagre; programme quality is poor; and utilization is low.

The identified weaknesses point to the fact that the child care services have been conceived, in the Laws, in a way which has failed to make the child the focal point. The Laws themselves have been shown to be unimaginative, unrealistic and narrow. A third foundational weakness is that the total responsibility is placed on employers, who are unable or unwilling (or both) to shoulder this responsibility.

Derived from the analysis and the identification of the foundational weaknesses, future improvements may move in the direction of replacing the 'women-oriented' approach with a 'child-oriented' perspective.

All young children of plantation workers, mine workers, factory workers and others in the organized sector need attention paid to their health, and nutrition, and opportunities for social, intellectual, physical, cultural and moral development. Children of working mothers, in addition, require some custodial care. Thus, this calls for a replacement of the present child care service model derived from the Laws, to incorporate the above principle and change of perspective.

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The Study analyses, similarly, the voluntary sector services in child care, which arose historically as a result of concern for the needs of children primarily, and only indirectly with the needs of women. The analysis traces the genesis back over a century, and moves via the post-independence child welfare concerns and the new concerns of the 1960s and 1970s of grass roots reality, the establishment of the Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS) through efforts of India's Third and Fourth Socio-Economic Development Plans, and the emergence of mobile creches, institutions identified with day-care for the children of poor working mothers. This analysis is reinforced, again, through detailed case studies.

The conclusion of the Study is that the voluntary sector services in child care, too, cater very poorly to working mothers (in the unorganized sector). The maximum outreach may be estimated at about 200,000 children (even assuming these are all children of poor working women), while the number of women engaged in the unorganized sector is about 45.6 million! Also women in agriculture labour, the largest and poorest sector of working women, are the most neglected in terms of child care services.

Thus the achievement, while being commendable, is seriously inadequate in quantitative terms, especially when taking note of the fact that some 90 per cent of the working women of India are in the unorganized sector. In addition, the quality of day care is also generally very poor.

Indeed, the Study raises the very serious issue as to whether no care is better than bad care, that it is better by far to leave children to be brought up in the fields, pavements and lanes as they have been in the past than to subject them to unhygienic and mentally and physically constricting conditions of a child care centre.

To keep a child for several hours a day in a small, dark, crowded and not very clean room, without activities appropriate for mental stimulation, sensory experience

and motor development through play, without emotional nourishment through interaction with loving adults and social development through interaction with all ages, while cutting him off from the community and experiences which he would have in his own environment, may be severely damaging, even if physical safety and health are ensured.

A second design issue that arises is that for various reasons stated in the report, most agencies, workers and institutions concerned with day care justify the small number of infants below three years of age under their care. Quite in contrast is the experience of the Mobile Creche Programme which has a large proportion of infants, and which is the outcome of demonstrating in practice, to mothers, that infants can be, and are, appropriately and lovingly cared for.

A third design issue is the ability of the child care services to meet the needs of both women and children, and here again, the Mobile Creche Programme demonstrates this active possibility.

In conclusion, the Study includes a number of suggestions for alternative proposals. The most seminal suggestion is that monolith designs are inappropriate for a country of the size and diversity of India. Thus the child care service has to be reconceptualized as a series of designs rather than as one.

A second set of bases for new designs, questions the current 'myths' which have hampered designs that attempt to reach the number of women requiring child care services and provide an adequate service. In particular, the Study identifies three such 'myths':

- a) The belief that Indian women are not working, the 'invisible' working women;
- b) The belief that the extended Indian family, unassisted, is capable of caring for children adequately (the 'invisible' nuclear family);

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- c) The myth that any women, or any one for that matter, can take care of children properly ('invisible' skills).

The Study emphasizes that only a strong pressure from below (grass roots organizations, women's groups, women's movements, trades, unions) can give both direction and force to the movement for day care services. The organization of the unorganized poor women is an essential first step.

The Study points out areas that require research and documentation. These include:

1. Demographic data: How many women are working, in what occupations and where, in what circumstances and at what income levels? How many children do they have, and how many of these need day care, and how many need other developmental programmes? How many girls are full-time child caretakers, where, for how long, and in what circumstances? Who actually cares for young children in the family, at different income levels, places and occupations and in the context of different kinds of household composition?
2. Survey data: How many agencies and what type are involved in day care? How many training programmes and what kind? What information can be gleaned about the distribution of day-care services between rural and urban areas, between different income groups, between working and non-working mothers, between children of different age-groups, between half-day and full-day programmes, between large and small agencies, between work place and residential locations of day care centres?
3. Theoretical studies: More information is needed on the impact of different types of caretaking on the development of children. What effect does multiple mothering or multiple caretaking within the family have on the child? What effects do different types

and levels of institutionalized caretaking have on the child? What factors are salient in each case and how do they differ?

4. Evaluative studies: These should concentrate on the nature, quality and effectiveness of different types of programmes in existence, including historical and anecdotal accounts and interviews, case studies along the lines presented here, micro-studies of experimental programmes, criterion-based research studies, and accounts of day care for different sections of the population.
5. Comparative studies: These are needed regarding the situation in other developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America, linking the development of day care with economic growth, social and political perspectives and value systems in each culture, as well as comparisons with developments in affluent countries both in Asia and the West.

The Study is much more than an analysis of child care services. It is also a call for action to be taken urgently, in a climate of understanding.

EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

Rao, Sudha V. Education and rural development. New Delhi, Sage Publications, 1985. 334 p.

Introduction

The central purpose of this case study is to analyse how the system of formal education in India actually works at the village level and how it interacts with other elements in rural development. The general assumption is that the provision of educational opportunities will promote upward mobility, reduce the disparities between various caste and class groups and evaluate the process of socio-economic development.

The book comprises four chapters. Chapter One introduces the book by describing the objective of the study and the research methodology used for examining the above-mentioned assumption through the study of a dry village of Dalena in Mandya District in Karnataka in Southern India. The study uses an anthropological approach to gather data on education and rural development to investigate several problem areas. It also describes the setting of the study by discussing the profile of the village in terms of its educational system, geographical description, population, family structure, literacy and sources of income. In this discussion, the study identified a problem that faces the village. This problem points out that despite the fact that Dalena is situated on the urban fringe with continuous and varied contacts with Mandya town, it remains a rural society. Land continues to be the central interest the life of the majority of people.

Rural development

Chapter Two explains more in depth the type of land available and the cultivation pattern; the categories of land ownership and the importance of land

in the life of a Dalena villager. Despite state intervention and subsequent developments in the wider economy, very little impact has been made on the social structure of the village. In general, the advent of irrigation, development of a market economy and the introduction of formal and health institutions have affected different socio-economic categories differently and helped only a small minority of Dalena's population. For example, state legislation outlawed discrimination on the basis of caste but in the informal context, caste remains a dominant factor of social interaction.

One of the changes that marked the turning point in the life and work of Dalena villagers was when richer peasants were able to purchase irrigated land in neighbouring wet villages. The cultivation of cash crops on wet land outside Dalena was considerably more remunerative than traditional subsistence food production within the village. This control over wet land by a selected few inevitably increased economic differentiation among various economic groups, made dry land farming comparatively less advantageous and changed the customary rhythm of production.

An important aspect of land utilization in Dalena was the size of a holding and the extent of fragmentation of land. Land was a major index of wealth, social status and security. In recent years, the peasants of Dalena were faced with the problem of a limited supply of land entering the market, a rise in land prices and sub-division of small and fragmented plots of land. Furthermore, as a consequence of recent population growth, accompanied by economic stagnation within the region, villagers of Dalena were forced to subdivide their already small landholdings. While the rich occupied a larger percentage of the land, the poor suffered from an extreme shortage of land and did not have the means to acquire more acreage. Significantly, about 27 per cent of the landless households were headed by women, who were the poorest of the poor. Thus, economic differentiation was on the rise, the population increased and frequent divisions of small

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units of land made cultivation uneconomical, Consequently, there was a growing pressure among the households in Dalena to seek alternative sources of steady income.

Labour

The introduction of irrigation in the Mandya region increased the overall demand for labour both within and outside Dalena. Of the total working population in Dalena, 30 per cent work as casual agricultural labourers. Among the 'traditionalists', 15 per cent of the 'medium' peasants and 59 per cent of the 'small' peasants have one member from a household working as an agricultural labourer, as compared to 88 per cent of the marginal peasants who have at least two. Similarly, of the total working population among the minority castes, 78 per cent of the Harijans and 45 per cent of the Artisans supplement their income through wages from agricultural labour. Altogether, 43 per cent of the total landless population follow wage labour as their primary occupation.

The pattern of change in Dalena's economy which has been traced, was brought about by population growth and the resulting increase in dependency ratios, diminishing landholdings and increasing fragmentation of household land, in a setting which lacks a secondary source of production and has only limited scope for external enterprise. Furthermore, urban proximity, participation in the market economy and the growing number of 'cash earners' has not only increased the demand for durable goods but cash seems to have become a strong factor in the functioning of the social and economic system of the village. This is apparent not only in the attitudes and aspirations of the inhabitants of Dalena but also in their actions with regard to hiring labour, marketing crops, the consumption pattern for non-durable goods, and job preferences.

The historical development of the Mandya region, the fact that Dalena is a dry village with a growing population, inequitable land distribution, scarcity of land, seasonal employment, limited opportunities

for entrepreneurial activities and low levels of living, have all contributed towards a demand for formal education as well as educational and occupational aspirations among the inhabitants.

Education

Chapter Three describes the non-formal and formal education systems in Mandya; how the villagers regard the two, the poverty and inequality that persist in formal education and how education fulfills or fails their expectations and desire for status.

A tradition of literacy existed in Dalena even before the advent of irrigation and the development of a market economy in Mandya district. This was achieved through the Kulimatha (education by payment). Kulimatha education in the pre-irrigation period was confined mainly to rich peasants and the Artisan caste. The advent of irrigation offered and encouraged households of all caste to seek new avenues of socio-economic mobility. Post-irrigation Kulimatha schools were open to Harijians as well, who until then had been denied access to any form of education in the village because of their lowly ascribed status in the caste hierarchy. The system of Kulimatha education consisted largely of instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, emphasizing the moulding of the children's character based on a code of conduct derived from the ancient mythological literature of India. The education was informal, leaning heavily on traditional knowledge. Soon, the growing population and the consequent subdivision of land made formal education or government school an alternative proposition. The peasants believed that formal education would enable at least one of their sons to move up the ladder of socio-economic success.

However, based on the past experience on the Kulimatha and the present performance of the Government school, parents have greater faith in the indigenous system than the official school. For the villagers, it is the traditional school which in fact educates their children, while the Government School which should perform this function, is merely viewed as

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a channel for socio-economic mobility. Moreover, they perceive the Government school as an institution which disseminates a set of values alien to the village environment.

Perception of education and role of the teacher

The traditional definition of education as opposed to the formal schooling has created a dilemma among the villagers. In their perception, an educated man is one who conducts himself in consonance with the established and traditional norms and values. On the other hand, inside a classroom, the teachers communicate the values of the urban sector. However, the poorer households believed that while literacy was useful to a peasant's life, the main determinant of his success was inherited land and wealth.

Another educational aspiration of the villagers which the formal school cannot fulfill, relates to the role of the teacher. In their perception, a good teacher has good moral behaviour, ability to reinforce discipline and provide individual attention to pupils and enable them to retain what they have learned. However, because the teachers are basically outsiders (they do not live in the village) and are state employees and not responsible to the local community, the parents cannot approach them easily and influence their conduct or content of teaching. The isolation of the teacher from the community is one reason for the perpetuation of the Manepatha (private, community run school); for the villagers the Manepatha school teacher is an accepted member who is not only approachable but also participates in the socio-cultural activities of the village.

Educational and occupational aspirations

The ideal educational achievement for a boy is that he must complete Standard VII to be functionally literate. Of the sample households, whose children are continuing in school or higher educational institutions, 53 per cent would like their sons to go in for post-secondary education while the remaining 47 per cent would be satisfied with secondary education.

Moreover, educational aspirations are significantly related to the first-born male in the family; the children attending school/college from 79 per cent of the sample households are either the first-born or eldest son in a family. As far as girls are concerned, there are conflicting views about the desirability of their schooling. Among the richer peasants and some of the service castes, there is a changing attitude towards the education of girls; they aspire to social mobility for their daughters through their educational background. Thirty-two per cent of the sample households do not want their daughters educated at all, because, in their view, literacy and schooling are irrelevant to a girl's future role as a wife and a mother, particularly if she continues to live in the rural areas. For similar reasons, 36 per cent do not want their daughters to continue in school beyond Standard IV, while 11 per cent are more favourably disposed to their daughters attending senior primary school. The remaining 21 per cent who want at least one of their daughters to complete secondary education, mainly comprise the Harijan households of Dalena.

In reality, however, the clientele of school systems is largely comprised of the upper-income groups. At the primary level, a higher proportion of the children of the 'cash earners' attend school as compared with the 'traditionalists'. At the secondary and the tertiary level, the demand for education largely depends on the extent of wet land ownership; thus, coming from the upper-income group. For the poor, even if education was free, it is not without cost to the family.

In terms of occupational aspirations, ideally, all sample households would like their sons to be employed in a white collar job and a Governmental job because it has the security of permanence and regularity of cash income. In practice, the poorer households perceive any job that brings in cash as a 'good job' even if it is irregular and temporary in nature.

Ascribed versus achieved status

Although land continues to be an important, possibly even a necessary, condition for acquiring prestige

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in Dalena, a new criterion of status and power based on formal education has gradually gained strength. As opposed to the past, wherein social status was conferred by hereditary succession or acquired at birth, status may now be achieved based on the individual's performance and education. This has led to the development of greater heterogeneity within each caste. Despite these, similar educational qualifications have not overridden ascriptive factors such as caste and socio-economic status. The explanation to this runs as follows: while the demand for education has increased in Dalena, job opportunities have not expanded. In such cases, the direct influences of educational achievement on status was suppressed by the influence of antecedent social status. This trend led to greater differentiation between castes and within castes and has widened the gap between the rich and the poor.

The educated youth among the landed caste have sought to confirm their hereditary status by access to political power and administrative links. They have used the Panchayat (village council) to develop official contacts for securing income-producing jobs, as well as for consolidating their power base in the village in preparation for higher political office. They are motivated to strive towards leadership positions not because they desire to introduce changes in the village, but rather from a consideration of individual advancement. The wealthier educated youth are turning to politics to vent their frustration. On the other hand, education has left the poor not only poor but, in addition has provided little to the person who is concerned with improvements and changes in his community.

Conclusion

The case study concludes that formal education has reaffirmed the existing socio-economic differentiation and failed to realize the expectations of educationists as well as the aspirations of the lower socio-economic strata in terms of acting as an agent for social change.

WORK-ORIENTED EDUCATION

Sharma, Jai Kishan. Education for Third World countries. New Delhi, B.R. Publishing Corporation, 1986. xi, 172 p.

The book is the result of a Ph.D. work of the author at the University of Poona. Although the title of the book is 'Education for Third World countries', it deals only with the Indian education system. The author has proposed a system of education to replace the present system. While discrediting almost everything in the present system of education, including the structure of education, curricula, and institutions such as the University Grants Commission, he has tried to justify his system of education, in which there should be five stages of education. The first stage is constituted of compulsory education up to middle standard (age group 5 to 13 years). The next four stages are based on the intelligence-quotient of the students. These are the optional stage (age group 14 to 16), selective stage (age group 17 to 19), specialization stage (age group 20 to 23) and research career (21 years onwards). Education should prepare students for a democratic-social order.

'Earn and Learn', or work-oriented education is the main theme of the book. Students banks, social service schemes, teaching of religion and regional cultures and a career-card system of examination have been suggested. The vice-chancellor based universities are proposed to be reshaped into democratic and teacher-based universities. According to the author:

the nation has not gained in happiness over the years and the situation has reached the breaking point. There is political anarchy and economic insolvency. Nothing noteworthy has been done to improve the lot of the common man... The national leadership, at the dawn of political freedom in 1947, made a

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wrong beginning. They ignored the school and took to fields and factories, secretariats and super-bazaars to usher in a new era of social change.

The book consists of the following eight chapters: (1) Dharma* and Education; (2) Philosophy of Education; (3) Work-oriented Education; (4) Examination; (5) Democratization of Administration; (6) Students and the Nation; (7) Observations; and (8) Conclusions. The first two chapters deal with the theoretical aspect of philosophies of education - Western and Indian. Chapters Three to Six suggest new directions and thrusts in the proposed system of education, whereas Chapter Seven includes observations of the author on the 'Challenge of Education - A Policy Perspective' which was released by the Ministry of Education, Government of India in 1985 for national debate. The last chapter concludes with the suggestion that if the present education system is re-oriented in the light of his system of education, the nation will enter a new era. 'The trials and tribulations that our countrymen, rich and poor, literate and illiterate, en masse, are facing may well be overcome in a decade or so'.

* Social customs, right behaviour, virtue, justice.

SPECIAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN

Japan. Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. National Institute of Special Education. Special education in Japan (brief report, 1985). Kanagawa, National Institute of Special Education, 1985, 17 p. mimeo.

The brief report on Special Education in Japan, prepared in 1985 by the National Institute of Special Education, under the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, contains useful information concerning educational systems for handicapped children, and educational as well as administrative arrangements and responsibilities for special education for the disabled.

The special education programme was set up in view of providing appropriate education for all the handicapped children and developing their capability to a maximum so that they can eventually, as far as possible, enjoy an independent life. Attendance at special school at elementary and lower secondary levels has become compulsory, in Japan, for blind and deaf children since 1948 and for children with other kinds of handicaps since 1979. After the introduction of compulsory schooling for handicapped children, the number of children fully and temporarily exempted from compulsory education has sharply declined.

Handicapped children in Japan receive education in different settings set up by law according to the degree of their ability. There are three settings where handicapped children may study - special school for high degree or seriously handicapped children; special class in ordinary primary and lower secondary schools for medium degree or partially handicapped children; while minimum degree or slightly handicapped children can be enrolled in an ordinary class of regular primary and lower secondary school with special guidance.

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Teachers are encouraged to treat the handicapped children, as much as possible, in an ordinary setting and to provide them with as many opportunities as possible to do things together with ordinary school children through extra-curricular activities.

Education at the special school/class has been designed basically according to the National Course of Study, and special instruction and special curricula for the special school are added. The purpose of the education at the special school is two-fold: (1) to provide general knowledge and education equivalent to ordinary elementary and lower secondary school; and (2) to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes to overcome disability and to give special training orientation. Curricula are made flexible and special arrangements are made in the classroom organization to meet the different needs of handicapped children which are quite diverse from one child to another depending on the degree of their disability.

Efforts have also been made in recent years to give handicapped students more opportunities for higher education. The Ministry of Education has given guidance for universities and colleges to provide handicapped students with opportunities to take entrance examinations and sent instruction on special measures for handicapped applicants. Institutions are also encouraged to improve physical facilities to meet the special needs of the handicapped. Tsukuba University has done a feasibility study on the establishment of a national institution of higher education for students with visual and hearing problems.

With regard to the administrative arrangements and responsibilities for special education, mainly municipal and prefectural governments share the work: the municipal government looks after special classes of ordinary elementary and lower secondary schools, while special schools are under the responsibility of the prefectural governments. The National government subsidizes certain expenditure regarding the operation of the special schools, and subsidies are given to parents to educate their disabled children at special schools.

Special education in Japan

In-service teacher training courses have been organized by the National Institute of Special Education. Research activities on Special Education have also been conducted by the same institute and other educational institutes such as universities and research centres for special education.

The report provides an overall picture of special education in Japan, including the structural and administrative arrangements and recent developments. There is, however, no attempt to make a critical analysis and assessment.

EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN JAPAN

Japan. Provisional Council on Educational Reform. First report on educational reform. Tokyo, 1985. 85 p.

The Provisional Council on Educational Reform was set up in September 1984 at the request of the Prime Minister to advise him on 'basic strategies for necessary reforms with regard to governmental policies and measures in various aspects, so as to ensure such education as will be compatible with social changes and cultural developments of the Nation'.

This report is the first official document which states clearly the basic principles and concrete proposals for the reform, although summaries of the proceedings of the Council's meetings have been published twice before.

The report is divided into three parts - Part I: 'Basic Direction of the Educational Reform'; Part II: 'Major Issues to be considered by the Council'; and Part III: 'Immediate Specific Proposals for Educational Reform'. In addition, the report contains speeches and statements made by the Prime Minister and the Minister for Education on the occasions of the first meeting of the Council and when the report was submitted.

The report starts with a critical analysis of education in Japan since the introduction of the modern school system in 1873, which the Council terms 'the first Educational Reform'. The Council regards that education in Modern Japan has reflected the pattern of Japanese Modernization, which is called 'catching-up [with the West]' pattern. This pattern can be seen in all aspects of Japanese Society including education, throughout the period of modernization of the Country till today. Even after the Second Reform which

took place after the Second World War, Japanese education has been characterized by a 'catching-up' pattern, though certainly the emphasis shifted from extreme nationalism and militarism to democracy, freedom and equality under the second reform.

On the basis of the analysis of the existing education system within the context of a rapidly changing modern Japanese society, the Council is of the opinion that there is a need to reform education again. The 'catching-up' pattern should be changed to something relevant to today's Japan which now has achieved the position of one of the world's leading industrialized countries. Emphasis should be put more on quality rather than quantity. Creativity and unique individual personalities should be given importance to prepare themselves for new challenges and demands to come in the next century. 'Internationalization' of education, in particular at the higher education level, is also encouraged in this context.

While emphasizing individuality, the report also stresses the importance of learning basics and fundamentals as well as moral education. Mastering basic and fundamental knowledge is said to be the basis for further advancement of knowledge and creativity required at higher level. Emphasis of individuality should be backed by a sense of responsibility to be cultivated in the moral education. In fact 'emphasis of individuality' and moral education are regarded as both sides of a coin. Rigid uniformity and lack of respect for individuality in the Japanese education system has resulted in many problems related to school children, e.g., school bullying and violence, juvenile delinquency and children's refusal to go to school.

What is significant in the discussion contained in the report is that issues and problems in the education system are discussed in wider socio-cultural context. Problems at the secondary level for example, have been discussed in relation to the competitive entrance examination of a university, which would, then, be analysed within the context of socio-cultural values and attitudes towards success. In Japanese society,

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ascription, i.e. where you belong or which university you go to, is more important than achievement, i.e. what you have done

Furthermore, 'Life-long learning system' and education in the 'Information age' are identified as new areas to be explored. Continuing education is focused on from the point of view of demographic change in the modern Japanese society, while adjustment to new developments in informatics is emphasized in view of the great impact and implication of information technology, not only in education but also in the socio-cultural sphere.

On the basis of the analysis of problems of education in modern Japanese society, the following suggestions and proposals for reform have been put forward:

Firstly, to correct the adverse effects of undue emphasis on the educational background of individuals, it is suggested that long-term comprehensive measures should be developed and taken not only on the school side but also on the recruitment side, i.e. private enterprise and government offices.

Secondly, to correct excessive competition in entrance examination of a university, reform in procedures for selection of candidates is proposed. Particularly too much emphasis on scholastic achievement under the present system is criticized and multi-faceted assessment of individual candidates is suggested. In order to enable each university to pursue its own unique method and criteria for selection, introduction of a 'common [national] test' is proposed. This common test will be regarded as a qualifying examination rather than a competitive examination. In addition, to provide the opportunities of higher education for a wider part of the population, liberalization and flexibility in the qualification for university entrance is proposed.

Another important proposal is to integrate lower and upper secondary schools into one 'six-year Secondary School'. The six-year secondary school without a

break between lower and upper levels will inject consistency into secondary education and also provide a secure environment to students. In addition, setting up the specialized courses at the secondary level is discussed in view of developing individual students' special talents and abilities, responding to new developments in technology and meeting social needs. Furthermore, a 'credit system upper-secondary school' is proposed in order to make easy access to upper secondary education for a wide range of the student population. This system allows students more freedom to choose and acquire credits for various subjects from different institutions and enables them to graduate from upper-secondary school on the basis of the total number of credits obtained.

Though the report does not use the term 'Third Educational Reform', it is evident that the task which is before the Council should be the equivalent to the previous two major educational reforms, since it has been asked (1) to thoroughly review the whole educational system; and (2) to carry out needed reforms boldly and carefully from a renewed point of view. However, submissions of this first report appear to be limited to reforms in the school system and the university entrance examination. Since this Council has been set up under the Prime Minister's Office and not under the Ministry of Education, submissions of wider implications to other ministries and government offices from the point of view of educational reform are possible. The key concept of this reform is 'emphasis [or importance] of individuality'. The forthcoming second* and final reports are expected to be full of unique, creative and yet concrete and to-the-point ideas and proposals reflecting the key principles presented in this first report.

* The second report was submitted to the Prime Minister on 23 April 1986.

PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN PAKISTAN

Pakistan. Ministry of Education. National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks. Major developments in elementary school curriculum in Pakistan. Islamabad, 1985. 116 p. mimeo.

This study provides a theoretical background of selected areas of curriculum development and empirical data from a sample of 53 schools drawn from four provinces and federal territories of the country. The theoretical materials relate to the principles and procedures adopted for the development of curricula, textbooks and training programmes for grades I to VIII (elementary education). The major areas of investigation under the study cover the nature of curricular programmes with special reference to integrated curriculum, moral education, work-oriented education and curriculum load for various grades at the elementary level.

The reference material for the study is drawn from the education policies, curriculum reports and other relevant sources. The background, objectives and processes of curriculum programmes have been analysed and significant features described. The historical background of curriculum development in Pakistan, its constitutional provision, roles of National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks, Provincial Curriculum Centres, Teacher Training Institutions and other related agencies; involvement of committees and experts drawn from cross-sectional population of experts and specialized organizations; and mode of operation and methodology of curriculum analysis, testing and finalization of the reports have been presented.

A brief review of significant research undertaken in elementary education, key problems in designing and implementing the programmes, nature, form and

levels of integration in various courses, both vertically and horizontally, have been carried out. The nature and range of courses designed for imparting moral education, the type and scope of the courses designed for imparting skill oriented education, and the work load of the subjects across the classes in a wide range of courses have also been examined in this study.

In addition to the theoretical analysis, field data has been drawn from the 53 schools mentioned above. Analysis of background materials and the empirical data lead to the formulation of the following conclusions:

1. Provincial organizations are not fully involved in generating definite programmes for future change. The data suggest that some organizations feel working in isolation and their integration with a focus of direction is considered necessary.
2. Subject Committees for the formulation of curriculum, review of textbooks and development of related materials are generally constituted as ad hoc committees. Stage-wise and subject-wise standing committees need to be reviewed and activated to work on a regular basis.
3. The concept of integrated curriculum has taken the following three forms: (a) integration of various courses in a single learning programme; (b) integration of the clusters of courses (such as General Science, Social Studies, etc.) and (c) incidental integration, particularly in Languages and Social Sciences.

The empirical data in the integrated programme for classes I strongly support the proposition of more integration of the allied courses for the beginning classes. In the above forms of clusters, (b) reasonably covers the areas of integration. Yet, some experts involved in the programme strongly felt that

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History may be separated from the Social Studies component as national cohesion depends on learning its history. They were also of the opinion that different subjects (History, Geography, Civics) and in General Science (Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Environmental Studies, etc.) present an artificial integration. Systematic analysis and microtesting of the areas of integration of various components could yield meaningful results to ensure a natural integration.

4. Three subjects (Agriculture, Home Economics and Industrial Arts) have been designed and offered in classes VI-VIII as skill-oriented courses at middle level. This is a new component introduced in Pakistan education institutions. It is offered only in about one-fifth of schools. Several problems such as high cost and availability of equipment, shortage of trained teachers, physical facilities in the form of workshops and continuous advisory services are associated with its implementation.
5. Moral education is imparted through the courses in religious education (Islamiyat) for Muslim and Socio-Cultural Education (Akhlaqiat) for non-Muslim students. A course in Islamiyat has been introduced in Pakistan's education institutions for the last ten years. An alternative course for non-Muslim students for primary and middle classes is being introduced. The course offers a wide range of theoretical and practical materials to promote the conduct and character of the youth.
6. The number of courses covered in elementary schooling in general, and beginning primary classes in particular, strongly suggest a thorough review of the courses and assigning appropriate weightage. The children of beginning classes are too young to absorb a number of courses, varying from six to eight at

the primary stage. Among them, Mathematics and Science have been considered major areas of detailed study and most of the contents are beyond the understanding level of the children. The present range of courses promote an elite system. Both vertical and horizontal analysis of the courses suggest a wide range of disproportion of the weightage assigned to the courses.

Future projects

1. The skill oriented education needs to be extended to more middle schools and the conditions improved where the programmes are offered. Individualized instructional materials and group participation may be developed to promote universalization of primary education.
2. A strong supervisory network, particularly drawn from the local community, needs to be developed to supervise primary education. Integration of courses in primary classes and substantial improvement of Science and Social Sciences courses need to be reviewed for the improvement of integrated packages of learning.
3. Institutional linkages of provincial curriculum centres need to be supported and the base of experimentation increased for building up educational programmes.

The overall analysis of the data presented in this study and the programmes envisaged in Sixth Plan and translated into Action Plan of Education provide adequate structures and points of direction for the improvement of elementary education in general and universalization of primary education in particular.

TESTING OF CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN PAKISTAN

Pakistan. Primary Education Project, National Achievement Testing Cycle 1984. Workshop on Protocol Analysis, Lahore, 10-23 January 1983; report of the Workshop, ed. by Mubarik Hussain Shah. Islamabad, Primary and Non-formal Education Wing, Ministry of Education, 1984. 222 p.

This is a report of a workshop titled 'Protocol Analysis - National Achievement Testing', carried out in connection with the work of an Experimental Primary Education Project which began in 1979 in Pakistan. The workshop was organized in 1984 for a period of 10 days and was attended by specialists in educational research, curriculum and teacher training and selected national and international experts in testing as resource persons.

The project was implemented in 4,100 primary schools in four provinces namely Punjab, Sind, NWFP, and Baluchistan.

The assessment of achievement of pupils in the project schools was conducted to measure the impact of in-school inputs on access, retention quality and unit costs. The assessment study had been undertaken every year since 1981. In the earlier stage, no data were gathered on control schools. Later, however, national tests were developed in mathematics and science at a national workshop and were administered to 4,263 students, covering both project schools as well as specified control schools in Punjab, Sind and NWFP.

It is reported that test results showed significant improvement in the performance scores of children in mathematics and science from project schools in all provinces as compared to the performance of children in the control schools. The gain ratios reported ranged from 10.25 to 15.95.

In continuation of the testing scheme, a follow-up workshop was organized in January 1984 with the following objectives:

1. To utilize the findings and insights gained from achievement towards improving in-service training of learning co-ordinators, teachers and related education personnel;
2. To analyse specific learning difficulties of children relating to important concepts, skills and competencies in science and mathematics; and
3. To develop appropriate teaching/learning materials aimed at improvement of pupil performance and progress.

Specifically, the workshop was designed to:

1. Undertake analysis of test items in selected schools with a view to identifying learning difficulties of children, particularly in reference to those test items (in the 1983 achievement tests) on which pupils performed poorly;
2. Undertake necessary revision of the Achievement Tests, and make a comparison of performances of children between 1983 and 1984;
3. Develop in-service training indicators which would serve as a basis for Learning Co-ordinators to focus their supervision and in-service training work more closely on teaching and learning difficulties of children in the classrooms;
4. Develop learning materials which focus on assisting the Learning Co-ordinators to deal more effectively with their supervision and in-service responsibilities; and
5. Develop teaching methodologies and materials for developing pre-requisite concepts and skills in pupils in earlier grades of primary education.

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The report consists of day-to-day accounts of lectures, discussions and working sessions, mainly devoted to methodologies related to developing test items, field testing and revision.

The first draft of achievement tests developed during the workshop were field-tested and analysed with a view to determining the difficulty level and discrimination index. These were followed by a test revision exercise in which participants were involved in person-to-person interaction with pupils to analyse specific items considered inappropriate. The report contains a pool of illustrative test items in science and mathematics. The outcomes of the entire exercise involving processes in test development and revision were finally considered as inputs for the improvement of supervision, teacher training and development of materials, for which specific recommendations are given.

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Michael Olsson, Apelis, Ephraim T, and Jacqueline Wasilewski. The co-ordination, development and implementation of non-formal education in Papua New Guinea. Waigani, Ministry of Education, 1985. iii, 332 p. mimeo.

The Co-ordination, Development and Implementation of Non-Formal Education in Papua New Guinea (henceforth, Co-ordination) is a report of a study team which has conducted a survey of Non-Formal Education (NFE) in Papua New Guinea (PNG). It presents a wealth of information on non-formal education in PNG. An overall survey of the situation is presented. It lists problems and offers recommendations. There is a very strong overtone emphasizing the necessity of making culture the central core of all development in NFE.

Background

Co-ordination presents a summary of background information of PNG, without which an understanding of the country's non-formal education may not be possible. The unwavering significance of the island's indigenous cultural values and social relationships is one of the most viable underlying factors, the importance of which is emphasized by the number of examples interspersed throughout the entire study.

Throughout Co-ordination it is clear that in PNG there is an overall discontent, particularly on the part of the rural villagers, with the western style of education. There are also several anecdotes pointing to the upsurge of concerns among the various PNG communities that the provision of '... western style education, as it is, might alienate the youth from their own culture and environment, resulting in general disillusion with life'. As an example, the authors

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quoted the plight of Franz, who was told the following by his mother as a result of his formal schooling:

'You are a stranger, Franz, ... You are only a stranger here. Your permanent home is somewhere else and your folks are somewhere else.

I couldn't keep you and you wouldn't like it if I kept you. You are the white men's son. I always know it' (p. 158).

Non-Formal Education in Papua New Guinea

The study gives some vital facts and statistics on PNG's non-formal education which is summarized below:

The present task of NFE is to service those Papua New Guineans who never had access to or who have been pushed out of the formal academic school system; around three quarters of all Papua New Guineans have never been to school; two million, or two-thirds of the population are illiterate; 42.6 per cent of the 7-12 years old (1978-81) were not at school; 63.5 per cent of the grade VI students do not continue to grade VII; each year 40,000 persons look for jobs for the first time, but only 4,000 new jobs will be available; of the total population 86.9 per cent lives in the rural environment and participates in the traditional, largely subsistence, agricultural economy in which the labour provided is mostly female.

The majority of PNG's population has no access to formal education. Only 57 per cent of the primary school age children are enrolled and of these, only 13 per cent continue to the high school level. The majority of the school age population are outside the formal educational system. Provision of education to this sector of education is, therefore, a great challenge for PNG.

Co-ordination states that although, in general, it seems that there is quite strong support for NFE in PNG, this is not reflected in the budget allocated

for NFE. To illustrate, only 2 per cent of the education budget is provided for vocational education, while 0.2 per cent is allocated for other NFE activities. Such a meagre budget allocation necessitates some reliance on support from other governmental and non-governmental agencies including church related groups. The activities of these organizations are generally oriented towards literacy and occupational training associated with social, sporting and religious activities.

Co-ordination describes the non-formal education of PNG as consisting of the following two major components:

1. basic education including literacy, numeracy, information on government services, and short-term skill training for the rural village population; and
2. vocational education, which is primarily operated through the formal vocational centres.

Literacy/numeracy training

Co-ordination states that although there has been no formal research on the subject, there is a strong consensus among literacy workers that the majority of new-literates who have undergone literacy/numeracy training lapse back into illiteracy. More often than not, they will be left permanently illiterate as a second serious attempt to provide literacy education after initial failure is rare. The main reason for such relapse into illiteracy has been cited as failure of the programmes to make literacy skills applicable to their every day life.

The multilingual situation of PNG further exacerbates the picture. While their own vernacular languages are necessary in acquiring literacy skills, the new-literates need to use literacy skills in at least one of the three most common languages to gain information. This means that soon after the new-literates have gained some literacy skills they will have to

start learning one of the three more common languages in order to allow themselves access to a wider range of development information. Such a complicated linguistic background of PNG also has implications for materials development. It has been recognized that translation/production units for local learning materials are necessary as native speakers of each vernacular language view their language as their great cultural identity so vital in keeping their community intact. For effective imparting of literacy skills in various vernacular languages, PNG needs to undertake a serious language planning exercise.

Vocational education in PNG is provided in two different streams:

Centre-based vocational education characterized by long-termed residency, fairly standardized curriculum, the use of students' past formal education records as recruitment criteria and generally oriented towards training for wage earning; and

Village skill training marked by its flexibility to suit current needs, notably economic needs, of each specific locale. Its curriculum is adjusted to respond to the rising needs of the time. Recruitment of trainers is done informally through observing potential trainees' potential rather than through formal qualification. This type of vocational training is oriented towards self-employment.

Clearly, these two types of vocational training require two different approaches to curriculum development, staff development and learning styles. Co-ordination emphasizes the need for gradual separation of the support service so that eventually each type of vocational training will have its own.

Throughout Co-ordination, there seems to be a call for a shift to village skill training rather than the more rigid centre-based vocational training. This is evident in the insistence that NFE should be a provincial responsibility allowing the local needs and conditions – notably the social and cultural ones – to feature in the planning and implementation of the NFE

programmes. One attractive attribute of the village skill training is that it trains for self-employment which does not result in youths leaving their native province to gain wage employment in other urban areas.

At present, NFE in PNG is being conducted by various government and non-governmental agencies. Past efforts at co-ordination of these agencies have been less than successful as various agencies have different scopes of operation and target population. As each agency has no information on what the others are doing, co-operation cannot be optimized.

Some of the major problems in the delivery system preventing successful implementation of NFE in PNG are identified as follows:

1. lack of an information sharing system;
2. lack of an adequate transportation and communication system for literacy workers;
3. frequent transfer of personnel in and out of non-formal education; and
4. an inadequate research and evaluation process to ensure relevance to training courses.

Non-formal education and culture in PNG

Throughout Co-ordination, it becomes clear that the people, particularly the villagers, need help in coping with the conflict between traditional ways of life and modern, western-oriented values. The authors give several anecdotes indicating the villagers' discontent with the modern, western-oriented education. They feel alienated from their own environment, their own people. The urgent need facing them is to learn to keep the balance between their traditional and modern knowledge.

Co-ordination points out, time and again, the prevailing and growing resentment among Papua New Guinean villagers that NFE, as it is conducted now, poses a threat by creating a gap between the younger generation and the older one. In a society like PNG

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where the traditional family ties are bonding, this amounts to a monumental threat. Therefore, the study strongly recommends integration of traditional values into the planning of NFE.

Recommendations

After studying the situation of NFE in PNG, the authors made a number of recommendations including:

1. That in addition to vocational education, non-formal education should gradually expand in two major areas, namely in:

- a) co-ordinating the work of all existing NFE agencies in each of the provinces through conferences, exchanges and publicity; and
- b) promoting basic education through training services related to information on agency programmes, literacy/numeracy training, and village skills training.

2. That assistance be given to help establish a proposed Basic Education Association in order to provide:

- a) a voice for NFE increasing direct representation in the decision-making process within the Department of Education;
- b) an alternative channel for getting information to the provinces and the villages on current agency programmes and services, and funding possibilities world wide; and
- c) training services for trainers in specialized areas not currently available within the Department of Education.

3. That Information Banks be developed gradually for each of the provinces where the information on agency programmes and services is easily accessible to representatives of village groups.

4. That new positions developing in the areas described as 'Basic Education' not be incorporated into the teaching service but mark the emergence of a

new career track with its own standards based on performance and successful skill transfer rather than formal credentials, the Basic Education Association becoming the vehicle for co-ordinating career related concerns.

5. That PNG elect to participate in the ILO Curriculum Bank Scheme to strengthen curriculum development and staff training in vocational schools.

6. That training, planning, and evaluation follow the self-designed participative format outlined in this report, relying on the relevance of the skilled expertise that has been built up over the years within Papua New Guinea in favour of too much dependence on outside expertise.

Co-ordination is a book that will be of interest to all concerned with NFE in PNG. It contains information and anecdotes which emphasize the fact that to improve the condition of PNG youth, particularly their employment pattern, there must be serious consideration for the traditional cultural values of PNG.

THE YOUTH OF THAILAND

U.N. Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. Youth of Thailand. Bangkok, 1984. 229 p. (Country monograph on the profile of youth).

This monograph is aimed at providing the countries of the ESCAP region with an understanding of the existing youth situation in Thailand as well as with a scientific basis for decision-making, policy formulation and determination of development goals and targets. In addition to the demographic characteristics of the youth population, the monograph includes an assessment of available constitutional, statutory and legal provisions, national policies and programmes as well as formal and informal youth organizations and national machineries affecting the role and status of youth and its contribution to national society.

The monograph begins by giving a precise official definition of youth — persons in the age range of 15 to 25 years. However, in some instances, analysis and recommendations cover the 12-24 years age group for statistical simplicity.

Demographic data and trends

According to the 1980 Population Census, the youth population was 10,717,100 or 23.9 per cent of the total population in 1980. The number represented an increase of 3.8 million over a decade, from 6.9 million where the youth population accounted for 20.0 per cent of the total population. As of 1980, there were about 5,320,500 male youths as compared to 5,396,000 female youths. In 1980, the proportion of youths residing in rural areas was 79.5 per cent. This is lower than the proportion of the total population in rural areas of 83 per cent and reflects the migration of youths from rural to urban areas. According to an official projection the youth population will

be 12.3 million in 1985, 13 million in 1990, 13.3 million in the year 2000. With regard to internal migration, youths constitute the major part of the migrants for both sexes. The largest groups of migrants were those aged 15-24. The data suggested that females tended to migrate at younger ages than males but generally males were more migratory than females.

Economic aspect

The proportion of youth in the labour force to the total youth population were 77.1 per cent for males and 68.5 for females in 1980. According to the Labour Force Survey, in 1980, there was, approximately, a youth labour force of 7.8 million (age 11-24) which represented about 34.3 per cent of the total labour force. However, according to the 1980 Census, the total labour force was 8.3 million which represents 37.9 per cent of the total labour force. The inconsistency between the two sources may be because of the exclusion of those 'waiting for farm season' in the Labour Force Survey. Yet, the number of youth waiting for the farm season was 2.6 million. Thus, whether the survey was overestimated or the Census was underenumerated remains to be investigated. About 1.6 per cent of youth (11-24) were unemployed, 2.2 per cent were underemployed by income level. These levels of underemployment were higher than the national average. The majority of employed youth in the urban areas, 71.3 per cent, were private employees while about 76 per cent of youth in the non-municipal areas were unpaid family workers. In the municipal areas, most of male youth were employed in commerce (29.5 per cent), manufacturing (28.8 per cent) and services (19.5 per cent) while most female youth were employed in the service industry (40.7 per cent). In the non-municipal areas, about 83 per cent of both males and female youth were in agriculture. In general, the most serious employment problems of the youth were insufficient earnings and unemployment.

Educational opportunities and problems

Most of the Thai youth are literate. In 1970, Thailand had an illiteracy rate of 21.4 per cent for the population aged 15 years and over. For those aged 15-25, the rate should be smaller since there is a large number of those in older age groups who are illiterate due to lack of education in the past. By 1980, the illiteracy rate of the population aged 15 and over had declined to 12.3 per cent, where the rates were 7.5 per cent for males and 17.1 per cent for females. This is comparatively low among developing countries in Asia.

Beyond literacy, problems related to educational opportunities of the youth in Thailand deserve attention. These problems include the disparity of education between rural and urban areas, the quality of education, the over-supply of higher education especially in Arts, educated unemployment, the increasing aspiration of youth for higher education, and the provision of education not related to the demand of the labour market. The government has been aware of these problems and has taken some measures to tackle them, but the problems still remain.

Health situation

The health situation of the youth, though not clear due to lack of age-specific data, has not changed much from the situation ten years ago. One of the health problems is the wide disparity between rural and urban areas. In spite of the probability of being understated, the general morbidity rate in the rural areas is higher than the urban ones. Health services at the village level are generally inadequate, while most doctors seem to concentrate in the urban areas. The leading causes of hospital admissions for the age group 15-24 in provincial hospitals under the Ministry of Public Health, between 1973-1977, were problems associated with childbirth, malaria, wounds and fractures and gastro-intestinal infection. The most frequent contagious diseases among youth are venereal diseases and recent trends do not show any tendency

to subside. In 1977 the major causes of death among youth were accidents, infections and injuries, malaria, heart diseases, cancer and diseases associated with childbirth.

There are many cases of mental illness. About one fourth of all cases treated in the mental hospitals are youths. Neuroses and psychoses among male youths are twice as frequent as among female youths. Youths with mental problems, who also face economic and social problems, show a greater tendency for crime, drug addiction, prostitution and other illegal occupations.

Youth delinquencies may be of more immediate concern to the society and the Government. In 1980, the proportion of young inmates aged 18-25 to total prisoners was 1:39. The most frequent types of offences committed by youth during 1977-1981 were thefts, organized gangs, drug addiction possession distribution, assault, rape and possession of illegal firearms. Generally, city youths have more tendency to commit crime than rural youths.

The number of drug addicts in Thailand is estimated to be around 400,000-600,000 with an approximate increase of 5,500 persons each year. Approximately 60-70 per cent of addicts are youths in the 16-24 age group. Factors accounting for addiction among youth are manifold, ranging from the youth's natural drive, availability of drugs on the black market, conducive environment, influence of friends, to family disharmony or broken homes.

The social and cultural situation

Generally, the youth in Thailand are not so religious. Despite the fact that religion has played an important role in youth development, it has been noted that youth have little concern for it. Religion is generally regarded as an affair of the elders.

The youth in Thailand have an average of about three hours a day leisure time. Their recreational activities include listening to the radio, raising

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animals, watching T.V., reading newspapers, home gardening and gambling. Radio listening ranks first among recreational activities because of the wide distribution and a large number of broadcasting stations throughout the country and the relatively cheap cost of the activity. Although gambling is illegal, it ranks fifth as a recreational activity of the male youth and ranks tenth for female youth. Corrective measures to this behaviour should be urgently called for by all concerned, the monograph states.

At the other end, Thai youth, especially college students, are politically conscious. Chapter VI has a detailed discussion on this. In summary, there have been many significant political events caused by youth which tremendously affect the political development of the country.

Youth policies, programmes and organization

The Government's concern over the development of youth dates back more than 20 years. In 1973, the first clear policy on youth was promulgated (the Royal Decree on National Youth Policy, B.E. 2516), recognizing that '... young people are very important resources and power for the economic and social development of the country'. The aims of this policy were to instil and develop in young people nine qualities towards good citizenship.

Because of changes of government and the association of youth with politics, especially during 1973-1978, there have been a few more promulgations of national youth policy after 1973. The National Youth Policy of the present Government, under H.E. the Prime Minister General Prem Tinsulanonda, which is based on his statement to the Parliament on 18 March 1980, is as follows:

'... The government shall encourage both the public and private sectors to jointly mobilize their resources to develop Thai children and youth, physically, mentally, intellectually, emotionally and socially'.

In general, at the policy level, the recognition of youth has been reflected not only in the national youth policy but also in national development plans and in the Constitution. Youth development was implicitly included in the First and Second plans whereas the problems of out-of-school youth were specifically mentioned in the Third Plan. In the Fourth and Fifth plans, youth became a major target group for development and mobilization. During the Fourth Plan, in 1980, a Task Force Committee for the Project on Perspective Policies and Planning for the Development of Youth was appointed to work out a long range policy as a master plan for the development of youth aged 15-25 years, covering the period of 20 years from 1982 to 2001. The Perspective Policies and Planning was approved by the Council of Ministers on 14 September 1982.

The Amended Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand (1977) provides that 'the Government should encourage and promote the development of the youth of the nation so that it achieves physical, spiritual and intellectual maturity, to help national economic and social development and to contribute to national security'.

Government youth work is under the responsibility of various ministries and departments concerning youth, but is co-ordinated by a body called the National Youth Promotion and Co-ordination Committee with the National Youth Bureau serving as secretariat. The programmes provided under participating agencies include training, workshops, work camps, vocational and skill training, financial grants, recreational services, sport tournaments, and health services. It has been observed that most of the activities for youth development have been done occasionally rather than on a continuing basis.

Findings

1. Plan and policies

In spite of many positive improvements, policy and planning for youth in the first four national

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development plans could be viewed as a type of plan formulated from the bottom line of operational units. This kind of plan, even though convenient for implementation, since it followed the same kind of operation practised year after year, seems unfit for developmental purposes because of its narrow perspective, lack of predetermination and aggressive pursuit in attacking the problems.

The fifth plan came out much better; however, the links between objectives, targets and measures are sometimes illogical and unbalanced, leaving some part of objectives unfulfilled and some parts of targets unachievable by the proposed measures. The chapter enumerated seven main weak points of the youth development plan and their corresponding recommendations.

2. Administrative organization

It was recommended that the government, NGOs and youth organizations should work together more actively and more fully. To prevent confusion among agencies co-ordinating the work of youth, they follow the Perspective Policies and Planning as a long range plan and the Fifth National Development Plan as a medium range plan in order to consider, select and adjust programmes and projects concerned. Furthermore, to strengthen the functions of the central agency, work priority should be set by the National Youth Promotion and Co-ordination Committee for each five-year period as criterion to be strictly followed by its secretariat, the National Youth Bureau, in performing its work.

3. Project and services

Most of the programmes and projects surveyed are conducted occasionally rather than continuously which hardly reflects development in reality. The reasons behind this are resource limitations on both sides - the project implementors and the beneficiaries. (A clear example were the kind of vocational training projects for the youth in slum areas which always had to stop because the trainees dropped out to earn their

living and the projects could not continue with a less than minimum number of trainees). The solution is not to make all projects continuous, but to make a systematic evaluation of each project in order to continue the ones worthwhile, to terminate the irrelevant, and to improve the inefficient ones.

The monograph concludes that tactful strategies and appropriate methods used for each project are the key points of achievement. Project implementors of each type (for example vocational training, youth centres promotion and establishment, research on youth problems and development) should have a chance to get together to share ideas and pool experiences to improve their implementation.

*Notes on
Asia/Pacific Documents*



NOTES ON ASIA/PACIFIC DOCUMENTS

The Library and Documentation Service of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok, continues to build up its documentation resources, which include a major collection of publications on education in the Asia and Pacific region. The annotated references printed below signal some interesting documents recently received. The UNESCO Regional Office will appreciate being notified of documents from Asia and the Pacific related to education in the region, published within the past few years, which have not been included in its bibliographies. Better still, readers may wish to send the actual documents to EDIS, UNESCO, P.O. Box 1425, General Post Office, Bangkok 10500, Thailand.

ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Directory of selected scholars and researchers in Asean 'rev.second ed.); vol. 1: Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, by Amnuay Tapingkae. Singapore, Regional Institute of Higher Education and Development, 1985. 926 p.

This edition of the directory contains the list of names of established scholars and researchers in the ASEAN countries. There is a second volume dealing with Indonesia and the Philippines.

The objectives are: to promote the exchange of ideas and co-operation among scholars in the region; to facilitate the exchange of personnel and expertise among the universities and to publicize research topics and research interests of scholars and researchers.

Economics in Asia: status report on teaching and research in nine countries. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1985. 400 p. (RUSHSAP Series on Occasional Monographs and Papers, 14).

The monograph consists of surveys on teaching and research in economics in nine countries namely: India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam. Each survey covers the historical development and growth of

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the discipline in the country; the development of the infrastructures for teaching and research; and major trends in research and problems associated with the development of the professions. The purpose of this essay is to provide an overview with respect to the issues and perspectives in the development of the discipline of economics in Asia. This volume is one among a series of country surveys on the status of social sciences in various countries in Asia and the Pacific.

FAO. Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Women in agriculture in Asia-Pacific region. Bangkok, FAO RAPA, 1984. 16 p. illus.

The paper deals with the role the women play in day to day life in the rural areas in the region.

There has been a growing awareness that women play a significant role in various aspects of agriculture; it is broadly estimated that women in rural areas grow at least 50 per cent of the world's food and work in all aspects of cultivation. Women have also a great potential role in several important aspects such as population control and improvement of family nutrition.

The paper also deals with equality in legal status, women's access to rural services, women's organization and participation, and educational and employment opportunities.

FAO activities concerning women fall under the following headings: - employment-related activities, health-related activities, education and training.

Forum Meeting on New Trends and Processes of Secondary Education, Port Moresby, 27 November-4 December 1985. Secondary education for the future; report of the Forum. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 85 p. (Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development).

The Forum, organized by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific in collaboration with the Department of Education, Ministry of Education, Papua New Guinea, provided the opportunity to reach certain consensus on the directions of secondary education, develop alternative objectives of secondary education and identify issues, innovative practices and growth point.

The universalization of primary education in most countries is resulting in rapidly increasing numbers of students prepared and expecting to enter secondary schools. Rising standards of living

and increased government assistance are making it financially feasible for large numbers of students to attend high schools. Increasing proportion of those receiving secondary education are leaving school to enter non-professional sectors of the work force while many will not gain any employment. A number of countries in the region are moving from a predominantly agricultural economy to industrialization. The occupational infrastructure is expanding with demands for skilled manpower at the professional, technical, supervisory and production level. Alternative models of secondary education are required to cope with their needs.

In line with this needs, the Forum sets as its objectives the following: a) to review national policies and plans; b) to develop conceptual framework of new models of secondary education; c) to develop alternative objectives; and d) to explore curricula and related subjects for implementing and renewal of new models.

International Conference on Open Higher Education, Bangkok, 13-17 August 1984. Proceedings of the Conference. Bangkok, Ramkhamhaeng University, 1984. 393 p. illus.

Ramkhamhaeng Open University hosted the International Conference on Open Higher Education in Bangkok, to give the participants an opportunity to study, to discuss and to exchange points of view concerning principles and concepts, development, administrative strategies, and the search for solutions to problems arising from the practice of open higher education. The five themes emphasized in the Conference were Philosophy and Concept, Development Trends in the International Perspective, Dichotomy of Equity and Quality, Graduates' Employment and the Management Challenge. There are main and supporting papers in each theme. Those papers give the wide scope of open and distance education in various aspects in Asia as well as other regions of the world.

International Symposium on School Buildings for Afro-Asian Countries, Roorkee, Central Building Research Institute 12-14 March 1986. School buildings for Afro-Asian countries; proceedings of the Symposium. New Delhi, Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company

The International Symposium held in India aimed to help architects, engineers, educational planners and administrators in pooling innovative experiences and ideas in various aspects of educational buildings and construction. The big volume of proceedings provides five themes about space norms and standards; design concepts; construction technology; policies, programme and future per-

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spectives; country reports and case studies. The contributors are experienced in working in countries of Asia and the Pacific; therefore their articles describe the techniques being used in those countries. The new technology of computer aided construction and design is included in the research studies on the forecast of future planning.

Japan. National Institute for Educational Research for Educational Co-operation in Asia. Elementary/primary school curriculum in Asia and the Pacific; report of a Joint Study on Some Major Developments in Elementary School Curriculum in Asian and Pacific Countries. Tokyo, 1986. 218 p.

This report traces the development of cross-national research arising from a perceived need for information on aspects of the elementary school curriculum and involving co-operation between 17 countries and a free exchange of information between the representatives of those countries. It provides background information on the participating countries, a comparative analysis of the statistics involved in the provision of the information, detailed information on the areas of curriculum selected for the study, and an analysis of the problems and issues that surfaced during the execution of the project. It makes some recommendations and discusses implications for future research.

Japan. National Institute for Educational Research. Section for Educational Co-operation in Asia. Primary science education in Asia and the Pacific; report of a Regional Workshop. Tokyo, 1986. 127 p.

During the past decade, various attempts have been made for the improvement of science education in the region under the initiatives of APEID-UNESCO in Bangkok. In order to support the renewal and improvement of primary science curriculum, NIER organized a Regional Workshop on Primary Science Education in Asia and the Pacific from 1 to 26 November 1985 in collaboration with ACEID in the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, with the objectives (a) to review the state of art in the participating countries; (b) suggest elements of core curriculum and developing scientific attitude in children; (c) to enhance the development of teaching/learning materials; and (d) to identify common problems and issues for undertaking common research projects. Twenty-seven experts from 16 countries participated in the Workshop.

Misra, R.P., ed. Regional development: essays in honour of Masahiko Honjo. Singapore, Maruzen Asia, 1982. ix, 278 p.

The volume consists of 16 papers compiled in honour of Dr. Masahiko Honjo, the former Director of the United Nations Centre for Regional Development, upon his retirement.

The papers provide a representative picture of the state of the art of regional planning and development. They indicate the potential contributions this discipline can make to the socio-economic transformation of the less developed countries.

The countries discussed in this book are: Indonesia, India, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines and Thailand. A research study on Southeast Asia is also included.

United Nations Centre for Regional Development, Nagoya. Implementing decentralization programmes in Asia: local capacity for rural development, by G. Shabbir Cheema and Denis A. Rondinelli. Nagoya, Japan, 1983. 118 p.

In this report, the authors review the variety of decentralization programmes that have recently been introduced in developing Asian nations; examines the experience of implementing them; and identifies the social, economic, political and administrative factors that seem to influence the success or failure of decentralization programmes. In addition, they explore alternative approaches to designing and administering decentralized development projects and prescribe ways in which implementation could be strengthened and improved.

A large number of experts from developing and developed countries and international organizations collaborated with UNCRD on this research project. Case studies of decentralization programmes were undertaken by them, and the authors prepared this monograph based on those case studies and other published and unpublished materials on the subject.

Vente, Rolf and Chow Kit Boey. Education and training for industrial development in Singapore and other ASEAN countries: the role of private corporations, foreign aid, and regional co-operation. Baden-Baden, Nomos Verlagsgesellschaft/Singapore, Maruzen Asia, 1984. 175 p.

The report deals the training of personnel in sufficient quantity and quality to meet the requirements of industrial development in ASEAN countries. It focuses on the educational systems

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of Singapore, Malaysia and Indonesia. It deals with three main topics which are considered important for co-operation and further development: training systems in companies, foreign aid, and regional co-operation among the ASEAN countries.

This report is based on a survey carried out by the German Institute for International Educational Research which plays an important role in assisting in training personnel in German companies in Singapore.

AUSTRALIA

Australia. Commonwealth Department of Education. Report for the period 1 January 1984 to 30 June 1985. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service, 1985. vi, 138 p.

This is a Report of the Commonwealth Department of Education covering 18 months from January 1984 to the end of June 1985.

This book begins with general information about this Department; the functions and objectives and the flowchart of the structural organization. The activities during the year 1984-1985 presented in this report are classified into 11 topics.

1. Assistance schemes and allowances for students, student assistance review tribunals and grants to the states and northern territory.
2. Aboriginal education policy co-ordination and review activities, aboriginal student assistance schemes, Administration and National Aboriginal Education Committee.
3. Language education including English language teaching, teacher development.
4. International relations through OECD activities, cultural relations, oversea visitors, international awards and exchanges, and the Australian National Commission for UNESCO.
5. Oversea students concerns with the policy and functions of the department.
6. Office of Youth Affairs policy development and diverse programmes such as income support for young people, co-operatives and community enterprises, youth housing, international exchange.

7. Recent major initiatives including education of women and girls, education and technology, traineeships, management education.
8. Research and statistics of research studies and projects, CERI activities.
9. Territorial education concerned planning and co-ordination assistance to ACT non-government schools, registration of ACT non-government schools, Island territories.
10. State and territorial offices showing the operations of administering the department offices and the department's activities.
11. Management gave the general views of many aspects of the Department such as financial and resources management, computer services, personnel management, freedom of information, public relations, publications and library.

Australia. Commonwealth Department of Education. States grants (school assistance) act 1983; report on financial assistance granted to each state in respect of 1984. Statement by the Minister for Education, Senator the Hon. Susan Ryan. Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Service, 1986. 184 p.

The Commonwealth Schools Commission of the Australian Government provides state grants to the government and non-government schools subject to the State Grants (school assistance) Act 1983. This report provides a detailed breakdown of expenditure for 1984 from funds appropriated by the Act. It gives names of schools according to categories, amount supplied (in Australian dollars), amount of grants by sections, e.g. building and equipment projects; and general recurrent expenditure; general support for instruction in English as a second language.

Nelson, A.J.A. and D.R. Dymock, eds. Adult literacy and community development: report of the workshop held at the University of New England, Armidale, 19-25 August 1985. Armidale, Australia, Department of Continuing Education, University of New England, 1986. xvii, 66 p.

The report's main objective is developing literacy in the community. It refers to the recommendation that the Commonwealth, State and Territory Government guarantee the right to literacy for all permanent Australian residents without discrimination. The discussions in the workshop also put stress on a plan for aboriginal

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and islander adult literacy. In the plan, it is suggested that funds be provided for local community-based training on a pyramid system, that is the identification by the community of one person from each community who can be trained not only to be that community's tutor but also as the catalyst for further education.

BANGLADESH

Chowdhury, Kowsar P. Efforts in universalization of primary education: the case of Bangladesh. Buffalo, N.Y., Faculty of Educational Studies, State University of New York at Buffalo, 1984. 63 p. mimeo. (Comparative Education Centre. Occasional paper series No. 12).

This monograph is part of the author's thesis at the University of Alberta. It deals with one of the most important educational debates in the Third World - the impact of primary education on development, on equity, and on literacy. This case study considers the experience of Bangladesh, where universal primary education has been a major issue. With the massive expenditures and great expectations that have gone into the UPE ideal, a careful examination of the situation is quite useful. The various emphases of the past several decades, including non-formal education, UPE and, in earlier era, higher education and institution building did not provide easy solutions to very complex problems.

Impact delivery system for primary education in Bangladesh. Dhaka, UPE (IDA) Project, 1984. 8 p. mimeo.

Claveria, Orlando B. Profile of the IMPACT system; IMPACT experiment - UPE (IDA) project. Dhaka, UPE (IDA) Project, 1983. 38 p. mimeo.

The IMPACT project developed by SEAMEO-INNOTECH in Manila has been experimented with in several countries in Asia and the Pacific.

This paper is a résumé of the efforts of the Government of Bangladesh to provide educational opportunities to as many school-age children as possible in the midst of many constraints.

After 1971 the Government has set forth to achieve universal primary education. Due to constraints of financial and human resources this objective has not been attained. Later the World Bank, through IDA, provided financial assistance; thus the Universal Primary Education (UPE) Project was organized. The project covered 40 thanas with 4,033 primary schools having an enrolment of about

736,000 pupils under the charge of 16,800 teachers. One of the innovative features of the Project is the experimentation of the IMPACT delivery system for primary education.

The objectives of the project are: (a) to increase primary school enrolment; (b) to decrease wastage caused by drop-outs and repetition; (c) to improve the quality of education; and (d) to reduce unit cost.

The developer of the IMPACT system needs a profile to provide a detailed view of the system before he can start implementing it.

As the IMPACT system would be implemented in the field, there will be changes, additions and modifications. The profile will give the developer of the system specific norms to implement and revise as necessary in the course of operation.

Qadir, S.A. Literacy in Bangladesh villages; implications for development and micro-planning. Dhaka, National Foundation for Research on Human Resource Development, 1983. xv, 120 p. mimeo.

In 1978 NFRHRD ventured an attempt at village-level in-depth inquiry in undertaking a nation-wide, scientifically based study relating to capacity utilization of the primary education system. Such an inquiry required research investigators to stay in the village for a sustained period of time. The Foundation succeeded in combining research projects in primary education and population control and family planning. Literacy or educational attainment both at the individual and the family level was found to be the best predictor of adoption for both primary education and family planning. The Bangladesh villages are found to be real entities as locality systems for the analysis of development including a component like education. Classifying the villages as high and low literacy villages appear to have provided a valid explanatory device for the inquiry. High literacy villages have shown a tendency toward equality - especially in term of educational distribution. Poverty has been observed to be overriding cause of the inability to send children to primary school. But in high literacy villages, a larger proportion of the poorer homes send their children to school.

The policy implication is that for the successful implementation of universal primary education, direct intervention is required in the low literacy village as a whole, and the poor families in particular.

BHUTAN

Bhutan. Department of Education. Environmental studies: teacher's manual. Thimphu, 1985. [no paging]

This teacher's hand book derives its aims and objectives from kindergarten, a contribution of Froebel to modern philosophies of education, who has said that in teaching the children the three Rs. we should guide them with the three Is, namely learning to live; learning to love; and learning to learn.

It contains guidelines for teachers to prepare their daily teaching/educating assignments including preparation of teaching steps, teaching methods, classroom management, evaluation of pupils' achievement and behaviour, correlation of component subjects, learning experiences, learning outcomes, etc. It is a companion volume to the book entitled: Draft primary school syllabus.

Bhutan. Department of Education. Primary school syllabus (draft) 1985. Thimphu, 1985. [no paging]

The role of the education system is of vital importance to the future of a country. It has been the experience of some developing countries that an over-rapid and unconsidered development has led to the weakening or loss of traditions and natural abilities. The change in Bhutan to a primary education system (PP to Class VI), which is inquiry-based and centred on the environment can be seen as an important way of integrating the traditions with modern knowledge and skills. Primary education thus becomes child-centred. It will enable children to develop self-reliance and flexibility of mind that will be vital to their development. It is hoped that by the end of class VI, the children should have a set of basic skills and problem solving attitudes that will enable them to return to their villages or to enter technical/vocational fields of work confidently. At the same time those who continue should have a solid foundation for their secondary education.

This book is divided into four sections: The first section contains the introduction, how to use the book, and aims of the primary school syllabus. Then follows the procedure, planning and evaluation of environmental studies. The third section deals with the class-by-class syllabuses and EVS topic webs, followed by each individual syllabus of pre-primary and classes I-VI subject by subject. The final section contains environmental studies subject checklists, including agriculture, science, health, geography, history, arts and crafts, and physical education.

CHINA, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF

China, P.R. Ministry of Education. Department of Primary Education. Study report on girls' education in the universalization of primary education. Beijing, 1986. 55 p. mimeo.

The Chinese Government has paid attention to the universalization of universal primary education as it is the fundamental way to raise the scientific and cultural level of the nation. The report provides the history of women's education in the past, showing it to be unequal to men, especially in the old Chinese system. Since 1949, the Government tried to support women's equal rights with men in political, economic, social and other aspects, and pays more attention to education of women and girls. In 1980, the Government pointed out that 'education plays a vital role in the modernization process. Primary education is the foundation of the whole education system ... so that the whole nation should strive for basic universalization of primary education'. The report provides 1984 statistics of enrolment rates of school-age girls in all provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities which have a very high percentage of attendance.

'Continuing education', Beijing Review 27(10): 29, 5 March, 1984.

The article points out the continuing education in the Beijing Woollen Mill. There is an evening school for the deaf-mute workers, financed by the factory management. Since 1980, these workers and their fellow-workers without disabilities have created an average of 30 per cent more profit each year.

Liu, Hongfa, 'Teacher-run factory', China reconstructs (China Publication Centre, Beijing) 32(8): 60-62, August 1983.

This article deals with the story of Zhengzhou Chemical Reagent Factory No. 2 operated by the Hui Nationality Middle School, in the city of Zhengzhou, Henan province, China. It is a model factory run by middle-school chemistry teachers, under the supervision of Hu Xitian, the vice-principal and factory director. The school aims to give its students experience in production.

Lofstedt, J.I. 'Educational planning in the People's Republic of China', in Educational planning in developing countries a report of the Nordic Association for the Study of Education in Developing Countries, ed. by Atle Hetland and Abel G.M. Ishumi. Stockholm, Almqvist and Wiksell International, 1984. 192 p.

The papers published in this book are a selection from papers presented and discussed at an international seminar on educational planning in developing countries, with particular reference to basic education, held in Oslo, Norway from 18 to 20 October 1982.

Tuteja, S.K. 'Universal primary education and literacy programmes in China: some reflections', Indian Journal of Adult Education 46(2):4-9, 20, February 1985.

The article points out how the Government improves the political and cultural quality of the nation by preventing the increase of new illiterates in the society through promoting Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Literacy Programmes (LPs). There are Education Committees for Peasants and Workers' Education at county level, township level and village level to guide the programme of UPE and LPs.

Wang, Yongyao. 'Educational reform: more vocational schools', China reconstructs (China Publications Centre, Beijing) 31(9):7-13, September 1982.

All over China today, many regular senior middle schools have either been converted to vocational schools or added vocational courses. This is part of an overall restructuring of the educational system. In Jinzhou Liaoning Province, only about 7 per cent of senior middle school students were enrolled in vocational courses in 1978: at present the proportion is 43 per cent.

FIJI

South Pacific. University. Institute of Pacific Studies. Education for rural development; the Tutu experiment and its relevance for the Pacific. Suva, 1984. v, 118 p.

Governments in Pacific island nations, international agencies, churches and others have been experimenting with new approaches to rural adult education. One of the best known experiments, the Marist Training Centre at Tutu, Taveuni, Fiji has been operating since 1969. The Marists wanted to evaluate the Tutu experiment, along with other approaches to rural adult education, to see what lessons could be learned and provide options and suggest guidelines for a major reassessment.

After the Second World War there was a new series of evaluations and experiments in changing the curricula, establishing rural community development programmes and setting up agricultural schools.

Tutu originally aimed at achieving a balance between institutional and extension (on-the-spot) training. This report outlines how the programme has progressed, and discusses its strengths and weaknesses. Much has been achieved in a short time due to the dedication of the staff who have been totally motivated and committed to the task of developing man and society.

INDIA

Aikara, Jacob, ed. Innovations in higher education in India. Pune, Dastane Ramchandra, 1984. viii, 107 p.

This book discusses the characteristic features and functions of innovation in education and presents some of the important innovations introduced in higher education in India after independence. The first chapter deals with the structure and function of innovation in education and in successive chapters introduces five innovations which are: Correspondence Education, National Service Scheme, Internal Assessment, Vocationalization at the + 2 stage; and Autonomous Colleges. It is an analytical presentation of these innovations with critically evaluates their results.

Ansari, N.A. Adult education in India. New Delhi, S. Chand and Company, 1984. 168 p.

This book deals with the concept of adult education, its scope and significance. It highlights some significant programmes in India undertaken in the past, like the one undertaken by the Bombay Adult Education Committee, Department of Adult Education, Jamia Millia and 'Each-one-Teach-one' scheme of District Moga in Punjab in the early 1950s. It also deals with programmes being organized through Polyvalant Adult Education (Shramik Vidyapeeths). It is divided into three parts. Part I concerns the concept, scope and significance of adult education and the Sixth Five Year Plan; Part II provides the information on some programmes of adult education such as Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy, Non-formal Education, National Adult Education Programme (NAEP), Urban Adult Education, Adult Education for Women; and Part III explains the resource development agencies and supporting services. In the appendices, it presents statistical tables of literacy in India from 1901-1981; Administrative, Advisory and Resource Structure for Adult Education in India; List of Resource Centres for Adult Education; and Select Bibliography.

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Biswas, A. and S.P. Agrawal. Development of education in India: a historical survey of educational documents before and after independence. New Delhi, Concept Publishing Company, 1985. xv, 936 p.

This volume offers a selection of documentary material on Indian education, providing a selection on all aspects of education excerpted from various sources - reports of expert committees and commissions, proceedings of conferences and seminars, Government resolutions, the Five-Year Plans of national development and the Constitution of India. The material has been grouped in three parts: historical survey of documents before independence; documentary selections since independence arranged subjectwise/and/under the subject chronologically; and 'education through the ages'.

Chaudhuri, S.C. Socially useful productive work in secondary teacher education. New Delhi, National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1985. ix, 154 p.

The Government of India has realized the necessity of including work experience in the curriculum called Socially Useful Productive Work (SUPW) as the integral part of the teacher education curriculum. The National Council for Teacher Education and National Council of Educational Research and Training have responsibilities in preparing and publishing this training package with the concept of the programme based upon the needs of the community. The SUPW lesson plans have been prepared on the basis of the corresponding doing-learning activity units. The format of these lesson plans will be different from the ones used for school subjects. The component of the curriculum includes: preparation of instructional materials in the form of doing-learning activity units after acquiring the related knowledge; practice of related drawing; performance of production and service-oriented manual work after acquiring the related knowledge. There are appendices which provide different steps of the course.

India. Ministry of Education. Challenge of education: a policy perspective. New Delhi, 1985. 119 p. mimeo.

This document represents an important stage in the process of reviewing and reshaping the education system to enable it to meet the challenges of the future and also improve its efficiency and quality. It contains an overview of the state of education and points to the direction of future initiatives, based essentially on the views and suggestions of educational planners, teachers,

students, parents, intellectuals and citizens interested in education.

The analysis and observations presented in this paper lead to a number of general conclusions. The first and the most important of these is that whatever the organization, the resources or policy framework, the ultimate determinants for success or failure in education are the commitment of society to it and the sense of purpose and integrity of the participants in the process of implementation. Given these two ingredients, people, who are deeply involved with achievement of certain goals, can rise above the limitations of their environment and accomplish their objectives.

A policy takes concrete shape only in the process of implementation. Inadequacies of the present system have been brought out to provide background for realistic policy making so that the limitations and constraints are appreciated while defining the tasks and formulating the measures for their implementation.

The new education policy will succeed to the extent it reflects the unfragmented and total commitment of the nation to accord priority to the development of its human resources. This document is not meant to be a final statement of policy. It aims to provide the basis for a nationwide debate which would facilitate the formulation of new education policy.

India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. Department of Teacher Education. Special Education and Extension Services. National conference of co-ordinators of IED (Integrated Education for Disabled) Project, 7-11 October 1985. New Delhi, 1985. 68, iv p. mimeo.

The Government of India formulated a scheme of integrated education for the disabled to stimulate the programme of extending educational services to the disabled. Some states have started implementing the scheme while others are planning for the same. The NCERT and the RCEs have initiated training activities, production of training and learning materials for IED. The NCERT also planned the national IED project with UNICEF assistance. The conference purported to discuss the scheme in the specific context of respective states and union territories and discuss problems and planned action: to review the status of the scheme; to identify problems of implementation; to discuss the assisted project; and to identify specific activities for 1986 up to 1990.

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India. Orientation Programme in Educational Planning and Administration for Senior School Administrators, 11th, New Delhi, 11-28 February 1985. Report. New Delhi, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1985. x, 117 p. and annexes. mimeo.

The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration has been organizing a series of three-week Orientation Programmes in Educational Planning and Administration for Senior School Administrators since 1980. The main objective of these programmes is to provide an opportunity and environment to the participants from various States and Union Territories to exchange their knowledge and experiences for developing proper perspectives of common problems of educational administration and their solutions.

Based on the feedback of the previous orientation programmes, seminars and workshops, this programme was designed to achieve the following objectives: (a) to familiarize the participants with the current trends and issues in educational planning and administration with special reference to school education; (b) to acquaint them with important concepts and techniques of educational planning; and (c) to enable them to acquire professional competence and effectiveness as educational administrators.

Kamat, A.R. Education and social change in India. Pune, Indian Institute of Education, 1985. 348 p.

Considerable change has taken place in India during the post-independence period both in education and in other spheres of life. During the last decade and a half, however, the pace of change in all spheres has slowed down. This volume tries to relate the educational advance, such as it is, with the social change that has occurred and is occurring at present in India.

The main underlying premise of the book is that education is not a prime mover of social change and cannot be considered as the main weapon, or even one of the important instruments, of achieving fundamental social changes as has been assumed over most of the last 35 years by many educationists, planners and social scientists. Education seldom rises above the socio-economic and socio-political situation in which it is embedded. The book first outlines the author's conceptual framework for exploring the relationship between education and social change. Then follows in the next three chapters: a review of the educational developments in India as a whole during the post-1947 period, a similar review

of the educational situation in Maharashtra, and a detailed critique of this educational spread and advance pointing out the critical issues in education. The critique relates these problems to their socio-economic and socio-political roots and to the structural changes which have come about in Indian society in this period.

Then follows the consideration of education in relation to social change in its different aspects. The book attempts to relate education to economic change and political change and also to changes in social stratification. Other themes are the education of women and its relationship to the social change which has occurred in their actual life and work situation; the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.

This is followed by an appendix dealing with literacy and education amongst the Muslims.

Another important theme considered in this volume is inevitably the issue of value-change in the Indian society as a result of the educational advance. In the last chapter the author tries to explore the possible direction of the dynamics of social change in the future.

Mahashwari, Shriram R. Rural development in India: a policy approach. Sage Publications, 1985. 231 p.

This book gives information on the historical background of rural development in India. It evaluates the major rural development programmes implemented since independence such as the Community Development Programme, the Intensive Agricultural District Programme, the Drought Prone Areas Programme, Rural Development Bureaucracy, the Command Area Development Programme, land reform, rural credit and technology for rural development. It points out and critically overviews the failures in design and implementation.

Mohanty, Jagannath. 'Distance learning: a democratic approach to non-formal education', The Education Quarterly 37(4):11-14, Winter 1985.

In India, it was not possible to provide adequate facilities of education in the formal system. So, an Expert Committee, under the Chairmanship of Dr. D.S.S. Kothari was appointed to explore the possibility of starting correspondence courses in the universities. At present, about 30 universities are providing

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correspondence courses at the undergraduate level and the post-graduate level. It is considered that distance learning or home-study courses have been able to equalize educational opportunities among the people and also eradicate mass illiteracy.

Raj, A. Samuel. India's educational policy. New Delhi, Select Books Publishers, 1984. 185 p.

This book is a research study on the evolution of the educational policy in India during the past 250 years. It gives information of the different policies such as early educational policy, policy of mass education, policy of medium of instruction, policy of planned expansion, higher education policy, aims of education in India, policy towards agencies of education, financial policy and current educational policy since independence. It emphasizes how the different policies come into being and how they affect the educational policy today. There are seven chapters which present the development of educational policies at different stages. Chapter 7 concentrates on 'Policy since independence', which presents a systematic account of the aims and objectives of education and policies related to the educational policies mentioned in previous chapters. It also gives detailed information on the pattern of education at present with statistical support on primary education, secondary education, university education, technical education, social education, the Education Commission, and the total educational expenditures from 1965 to 1985. It points out that educational policy in India should be reformed to meet the needs of the people and make it a powerful instrument of social, economic and cultural transformation of the nation.

Sankar, Uday. Education of Indian teachers. New Delhi, Sterling Publishers, 1984. 332 p.

The book provides the information on the development of education for Indian teachers since ancient times when teachers taught in traditional ways, until the beginning of the Nineteenth Century when the normal school for the training of primary school teachers was set up. The present situation of teacher education in India is presented from Chapter Two onwards. It gives information on teacher education at the primary and secondary level with the support of a statistical survey by NCERT. The emphasis is on preparing primary and secondary school teachers in a professional manner. It also studies the working of teachers' colleges in the U.S.A. as a case study for the adoption of better teacher preparation in

the future. It emphasizes the author's opinion about the training of Indian teachers that the preparation should be taken up when the students are young, on the same footing as the training of doctors and engineers.

Singhal, R.P. Revitalizing school complexes in India; with special reference to the innovative rapport based experience of Maharashtra. New Delhi, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1983. xv, 191 p.

The book provides information of two main problems of universalization of elementary education in India: providing access to education to all children of school-going age and improving the overall quality of education. It is observed that the schools suffer from chronic isolation; there is hardly any communication between one school and another, not even with other educational institution in the neighbourhood. The school complex system was introduced in Maharashtra state by the Education Commission of India as an important programme of school improvement and optimum utilization of available resources. The rapport based programme of school improvement is used as a trial model system of other states in India. The author gives a critical appraisal of the scheme over the last 15 years, suggests activities for further strengthening of Maharashtra's innovation and examines the feasibility of revitalizing school complexes.

INDONESIA

Berkovitch, I. 'School patterns in Indonesia', Southeast Asia Development Digest :24-26, June-July 1986.

This study reports the achievements of Indonesia's schools, but shows why some children do not pursue their studies to higher education levels.

The concluding section deals with the suggestions that the authorities raise the attendance at primary schools to a full 100 per cent; efforts of changing parents' attitude; and complications due to hostility to vocational training by the educated that hinders the development of technical education.

Zajac, Vincent. Urban sanitation planning manual based on the Jakarta case study, by Vincent Zajac (and others) Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1984. xiv, 158 p. (World Bank technical paper, no. 18. Appropriate technology for water supply and sanitation v. 14)

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The provision of affordable water supply and sanitation services to all population groups - rich and poor - in urban areas requires the use of a variety of technologies, supported by information and education activities. Experience has shown that beneficiaries, in particular those living in areas with few or none of the customary municipal services, need to understand the purpose, the cost and the operation of the proposed improvement if they are to enjoy the intended health and economic benefits. As a consequence, the user community must participate in the project preparation and technology selection process, and the designer must know and fully understand existing conditions and user attitudes.

The planning of the sanitation component of the Jakarta Sewerage and Sanitation Project required such user participation and background information. Project authorities therefore developed a process of data collection, community consultation and statistical analysis which led to recommendations for user affordable and acceptable sanitation improvements. This process, including design of questionnaires, investigator training and computer analysis of data is described in this document in a form that will permit other project planners to utilize the process. In addition, information is provided that will enable planners to estimate the time and cost of a sanitation survey.

JAPAN

Inoue, Ken. The education and training of industrial manpower in Japan. Washington, D.C., World Bank, 1985. 69 p. (World Bank staff working papers, no. 729).

Human resources have played a crucial role in Japan's economic development. The Government has always been strongly concerned about the nation's education, and by the end of the Meiji period Japan had achieved almost universal compulsory education. Today, the rate of attendance at upper secondary schools is 94 per cent and at university 32 per cent. In regard to skill acquisition, various types of institutions such as upper secondary schools offering vocational courses, technical colleges, special training schools, vocational training schools and junior vocational training colleges are provided. However, people seem to prefer general education to vocational. This is because the Japanese educational system works as a sophisticated mechanism to select students, and companies recruit new graduates based on their academic qualification rather than on their vocational knowledge and skills. After

hiring new graduates, Japanese companies provide long and systematic education and training for all employees in order to develop their potential capability.

The main purpose of this paper is to examine the formation and utilization of manpower for economic development in Japan, and to consider some lessons for developing countries from Japan's experience. The paper consists of two main chapters. Chapter II considers the role of schools and training institutes in the formation of manpower and examines the education and training system, both in the Meiji period and in the post-Second World War period. Chapter III deals with the role of companies in the upgrading and utilization of manpower. Education and training in a company, Japanese management and manpower, and workers' participation are the main topics of this chapter. The final chapter describes the lessons which developing countries can learn from Japan's experience.

Japan. Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Outline of education in Japan. Tokyo, 1985. 90 p.

The book describes the organization of the educational system in Japan from kindergarten to higher education. It gives the process of admission to different levels. Besides formal education, the Government of Japan provides 'Social education' or public facilities, public centres, libraries, museums, youth's house, children's centres, etc. to their citizens. It includes information on the standard number of yearly school hours with subjects and courses of study, as well as administration and educational finance.

Japan. Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. The systematic planning and administration of higher education in Japan after 1986. Tokyo, 1986. 74 p.

The policy concerning higher education in Japan has been systematically formulated by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture in line with the First Plan published in 1976, and the Second Plan published in 1979. This report represents a New Plan covering the period from 1986 to 1992.

To formulate the principles there are two considerations in shaping the courses of future policy: (1) qualitative development of higher education stressing planning for 'Open' institutions of higher education, promotion of the 'Internationalization' of institutions of higher education, development of institutions of higher

education; (2) quantitative goals for institutions of higher education which considers mainly the physical scale of universities, junior colleges and colleges of technology, and directions of graduate schools. The geographical distribution of institutions of higher education is included in the plan.

Japan. National Council on Educational Reform. Summary of secondary report on educational reform. Tokyo, 1986. 48 p.

This second report on educational reform gives advice on a basic direction for education as Japan moves towards the Twenty-first Century and makes fundamental and comprehensive recommendations for educational reform on various issues involving families, schools and society as a whole.

The report is composed of four parts: Part I - Basic direction of education for the Twenty-first Century; Part II - Reform to invigorate education and inspire public confidence, which deals with (1) Transition to a lifelong learning system, (2) Recovery of the educational power of the home, (3) Reform of elementary and secondary education, (4) Reform of higher education and the promotion of scientific research, and (5) Promotion of non-formal education; Part III - Reforms for coping with the changes of the times, which refers to reforms for coping with the age of information; and Part IV - Basic direction for reform of educational administration and finance.

Japan. National Institute for Educational Research. Office of Overall Planning and Co-ordination. Basic facts and figures about the educational system in Japan. Tokyo, NIER, 1983. 73 p.

Until the end of World War II a multi-track school system was in force in Japan. Immediately after the war the school system shifted to a single-track 6-3-3 plan.

The Constitution of Japan enacted in 1946 provides for the basic right of the people to receive education: 'All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their abilities, as provided for by law'.

The Fundamental Law of Education enacted in 1947 defines the central aim of education as bringing up self-reliant members of a peaceful and democratic community with a respect for human values. To achieve this aim, the law sets forth national principles of education such as equal opportunity of access to education, co-education, prohibition against partisan political edu-

cation or sectarian religious education in public schools, and so on. With regard to equal opportunity of education, the law prohibits 'discrimination on account of race, creed, sex, social status, economic position or family origin'. More specific objectives and principles of education at different levels and areas are specified in the School Education Law and many other education laws and regulations which were enacted on the basis of the spirit of the Fundamental Law of Education.

The document sets forth in detail every aspect of education in Japan, including the organization of the educational system; basic statistics of education; curricula and textbooks; school teachers; and educational administration and finance. The appendices contain statistics, an organogram of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, and chronological table of development of the modern educational system in Japan.

MALAYSIA

Malaysia. Ministry of Education. Educational Planning and Research Division. Education in Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur, 1985. 61 p.

This document traces the development of education in Malaysia and elaborates on the fundamental principles of Malaysian education to achieve a united nation of a plural society, just, liberal and progressive.

Then it describes the education structure of formal education, the organogram of the Ministry of Education, and organization and administrative matters. The last two chapters deal with the education, programmes and educational services and training by other agencies.

MALDIVES

Berenschot-Moret-Bosboom Management Consulting for Development. Project identification, programming and planning in Maldives. Tilburg, Netherlands, 1980. 2 v.

This report is the result of a three-month study carried out by a team of consultants at the request of the Government of Maldives and financed by the Asian Development Bank. The report is presented in two volumes. Volume 1 consists of the findings and recommendations of the study team while Volume 2 comprises 48 project profiles which are proposed for implementation during the period 1980 to 1985.

NEPAL

Nepal National Advanced-level Workshop to cope with the Problem of Drop-outs and Repeaters in the Primary Schools of Nepal, Kathmandu, 12-16 August 1985. Training of primary education personnel; report of the workshop. Kathmandu, Curriculum, Textbooks and Supervision Development Centre, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1985. 71 p. and appendices. mimeo.

This is a report of a National Advanced-level Workshop which has been organized with the assistance of the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok in the framework of APEID.

The theme of the workshop has a direct relevance to the problems faced by Nepal in the field of primary education at present.

Nepal has expanded the facilities of primary education during the past three decades, and claims to have enrolled 75 per cent of the school-going age population in the primary schools. The Government has increased its expenditure in this area. Now the question is related to the efficient operation of the system necessary to save resources for the further expansion of primary education in the country. The workshop devoted itself to all aspects that relate to the internal efficiency in primary education, with the following objectives: to redesign strategies, develop plans, prepare curriculum and instructional materials for the in-service education of teachers focusing on the reduction of repetition and drop-outs; to generate commitment and competencies in teachers; and to orientate policy-makers, high level administrators and researchers to facilitate and support teachers' work in coping with drop-out and repetition problems.

Nepal National Seminar on Educational Planning and Programme Formulation in Nepal, Sano Thimi, Kathmandu, 10-11 April 1985. Report of the seminar. Kathmandu, Institute of Education, Tribhuvan University, 1985. ii, 88 p.

With assistance from UNESCO, the Institute of Education undertook a project to study the genesis, growth, practices and problems of educational planning in Nepal. The task force which was appointed to conduct the survey has submitted its report. The present seminar is the second in the series of activities organized by the Institute under the above project. The seminar is organized primarily to obtain the views of researchers, administrators, educators and educational planners.

Three decades of planning has left Nepal at the present stage of development which is characterized by a rapid expansion of education in terms of enrolment and facilities, stimulated by various educational planning efforts made by the country since the middle of the 1950s. Now the problems have started to emerge - problems of wastage, low quality of teaching, low female enrolment, shortage of trained teachers, poorly motivated teachers, fall in the standard of student discipline, lack of educational materials, inappropriate curricula and poor school buildings. Consequently, the need for a planned educational strategy is felt more urgently now than ever before.

Nepal National Seminar on Literacy and Non-formal Education for Development, Kathmandu, 19-25 September 1985. Final report. Kathmandu, Adult Education Division, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1985. 112 p. mimeo.

Nepal is launching its Seventh Five Year Plan in 1985. It is an opportunity for the leaders and policy makers to discuss together the problems of literacy and non-formal education programmes and their roles for development especially in the rural areas.

In order to investigate the problem and to suggest an appropriate policy and programme for promotion of the Literacy and Non-formal Education Programme, the National Seminar on Literacy and Non-formal Education was organized jointly by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the UNESCO Regional Office, Bangkok.

The seminar dealt with the following aspects: importance of literacy; the concept of literacy; current policy of the Government; current programmes; problems of formal system with respect to literacy; constraints of primary education; problems of adult education; and suggestions.

Nepal National Training Workshop on Educational Project Management and Programme Implementation, Kathmandu, 2-6 September 1985. Project management and programme implementation: report, ed. by Bishwa Keshar Maskay and Bhuchandra Prasad Raj Baidya. Kathmandu, Institute of Education, Tribhuvan University, 1985. 176 p.

The paper is the report of a five-day National Training Workshop, organized by the Institute of Education, Tribhuvan University, with financial assistance from UNESCO. It offered an opportunity to planners, programmers, administrators, managers and

educators representing different agencies of the Ministry of Education and Culture, Tribhuvan University, and Rural Development Projects to acquaint themselves with various aspects of educational project management. It was one in the series of attempts made by the Institute in recent years towards improving the system of educational planning and management in the country.

The workshop has as its objectives as follows: to promote the management efficiency of personnel working at central, regional and district level units of the Ministry of Education and Culture and personnel working at various educational and rural development projects; and to improve the operational efficiency of educational projects and programmes.

Rajbhandari, Satya Narayan and Maskay Bishwa Keshar. An evaluative study of planning system in Tribhuvan University. Kathmandu, Tribhuvan University, 1985. vii, 70 p. mimeo.

This is a study report evaluating the planning system in Tribhuvan University, financed by the Research Division, Tribhuvan University. The main objectives of the study are to analyse the existing planning system in the university, to ascertain the effectiveness of the university planning mechanism and to identify the problems encountered in the planning process and to suggest measures for strengthening the university planning system.

The first part of the report is about the historical development of higher education in Nepal, the creation of the Planning Division and the introduction of the National Education System Plan. The second part provides a brief sketch of the university planning mechanism and an analysis of data obtained through questionnaire responses and interviews with officials involved in planning of higher education at various levels. There are five appendices on (1) Extracts from the National Education System Plan on higher education; (2) Functions of planning mechanism in the university; (3) List of institutes, research centres and campuses; (4) List of interviewees; and (5) Report of the University Planning Committee, 1986.

Sharma, Suresh R. The effects of new trends in educational financing on the plan objectives: equity, quality and efficiency; a case study on Nepal. Sanathimi, Bhaktapur, Institute of Education, Tribhuvan University, 1985. 76 p.

This paper is a report of a study on educational expenditure in Nepal. The objectives of the study are: to analyse educa-

tional policy goals, plan targets and budget allocations to the various components for improved equity, quality, and efficiency in education; to study the system of resource allocation and subsidies to reduce socio-economic and regional disparities in education; to suggest ways of mobilization of new resources - public and private - for a minimum learning package for all, and study the impact of scarce school resources on learning; to study ways of attaining optimum resource allocation to improve internal as well as external efficiency; and to indicate implications on policies, plans, resource allocation, mobilization, and efficiency aspects of education.

Shrestha, Shashi M. Challenges in rural development through education in Nepal. Kathmandu, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1985. 73 p.

The task of educational development, particularly in rural parts of Nepal, is enormous. Low literacy rates, high drop-out and repetition rates particularly in early grades of primary education, short supply of qualified and trained teachers and poor physical environment in schools are some of the problems that confront the education scene in rural Nepal. To respond to this the Government of Nepal has already launched some innovative projects that aim at finding solutions to the problems. One of such projects is 'Education for rural development in the Seti Zone'. This document largely draws on the experiences gained from the execution of the project.

Tribhuvan University. Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development. Determinants of educational participation in rural Nepal (A CERID/WEI Project); main report. Kathmandu, 1984. 188 p. and appendices. illus.

During the last three decades, the Nepalese government used its efforts to provide basic education to the people in the country, but more than 30 per cent of the primary school age children are still un-enrolled, and about 50 per cent of students enrolled at the first grade either drop out or repeat the class. The Government tried to find out the causes of these failures.

The study has been conducted to determine child-related, household-related and school-related factors that affect children's participation in education and their continued attendance in schools. The findings of the study are presumed to serve as a potential guide for policy decisions and programme identification

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in order to facilitate access to education b, the country's rural children on an extensive scale. The report describes procedures of the study, major findings, factors affecting school attendance, and recommendations which raised many points to improve the situations in rural areas.

NEW ZEALAND

Biddulph, Fred and Roger Osborne, eds. Making sense of our world: an interactive teaching approach. Hamilton, N.Z., Science Education Research Unit, University of Waikato, 1984. 1 v. (various paging) illus.

The Learning in Science Project (Primary) was a New Zealand Department of Education funded project based at the University of Waikato, 1982-1985. This book grew out of the work of the Project and the resulting suggestions; it contains the results of extensive work by Project team members with teachers and children in classrooms.

It is written for teachers and teachers-in-training who are concerned to help children make better sense of their world, and who may be searching for more effective teaching strategies to do so. It consists of a series of six booklets arranged in two parts as follows: Part 1. Handbook, with appendices on spiders, flowers and seeds, hot and cold, floating and sinking; and Part 2. Advanced handbook.

The Handbook outlines and illustrates the ideas behind, and main components of, the interactive teaching approach. The four appendices show how the interactive approach can be used with specific topics. The Advanced handbook provides additional suggestions for teachers who wish to use the interactive teaching approach with topics for which appendices are not available.

Meade, Anne. The children can choose: a study of early childhood programmes in New Zealand. Wellington, New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1985. 140 p. illus. (Studies in education series, No. 39).

This is a report of a case study of what occurs inside child care centres, kindergartens and playcentres in New Zealand. The objective is to find out how early childhood educators make use of their time. The information in the report is based on the study of six early childhood groups in three services. The information was gathered in 1980 by a team of three observers who had two centres each to observe. Every centre was observed on an average of 10 occasions.

One of the main tasks of the researchers was to try to establish 'ow much time adults spent on a variety of pre-determined behaviour. patterns in different types of early childhood centres, under different conditions. It was found that there was less adult/child talk than most educators expected. The author paid special attention to the structures which affect the curriculum in early chilonowa centres.

This is a stimulating and informative book, full of ideas and suggestions that parents and staff in the field of early childhood education will find encouraging and helpful when planning, evaluating and reflecting on their work.

New Zealand. Department of Education. Education statistics of New Zealand, 1985. Wellington, 1986. 135 p.

This edition of education statistics of New Zealand presents a comprehensive statistical picture of the New Zealand education system in 1985. The use of the International Standard Classification of Education recommended by UNESCO should be helpful to those researchers who are seeking internationally comparable information.

PAKISTAN

International Seminar on Priorities in Educational Development in Pakistan - Projects and Training Programmes, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, Pakistan, 7-9 September 1983. Priorities in educational development in Pakistan - projects and training programmes; report of the Seminar. Edmonton, Alberta, Centre for International Educational and Development, University of Alberta, 1985. 111 p.

The report provides essays on management ideology for education in Pakistan which is viewed as an integration of three elements: Islamization, development of human resources, equity and democratization. The chapter explains how and why these three distinct strands are the main concepts of Pakistan national development. It provides the sources of governmental and international agencies and institutions which organize training programmes in educational planning and management, with details of courses and periods of training. As the projects and training programmes are different in each province, this report provides the specific projects which are appropriate in those states: Punjab, Sind, Azad, Tribal areas (FATA) and North-West Frontier Province.

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Khawaja, Sarfraz. Promotion of girls education in the context of universalization of primary education. Islamabad, Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Ministry of Education, 1985. 66 p. mimeo.

Larrabee, Marva J. A challenge for Third-World education: changing male/female literacy in Pakistan. Washington, D.C., National Institute of Education, US Department of Education, 1984. 22 p.

The two documents have the same target, that is to promote the universalization of primary education in Pakistan, especially for the female population. The first document provides the report of the Steering Committee of the Academy of Educational Planning and Management which undertook the research of this study at the invitation of UNESCO. The study has attempted to identify areas which need priority attention both by the public and private sectors for qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion in the sector of female primary education.

The second publication deals with a longer period of educational planning for the country. The first part of the paper presents an evaluation of the impact of primary level education on literacy rates and summarizes the aims the results achieved for each five-year planning period from 1955 to 1975, giving particular attention to the issues of under-funding and the failure of increases in primary school enrolments to keep pace with the annual increase in population growth. The second portion of the paper evaluates the impact of the adult literacy programme and criticizes these efforts for being too small in magnitude, failing to motivate participants, and lacking educational research, materials, and teaching methods for adults. In addition, this section discusses the National Literacy Programme, a comprehensive national plan to be in operation from 1983 to 1993 which has as a major goal the reduction of female illiteracy, a culturally induced phenomenon that devalues education for women and has kept their participation in literacy programmes at a minimum.

Pakistan. Curriculum Research and Development Centre. Standards of Pakistan studies. Lahore, 1985. 32 p.

The Curriculum Research and Development Centre of Punjab Education Department tried to assess the strong and weak points of the students in learning Social Studies when compared to the old days. The students in Pakistan are blamed by the older generation that they lack in knowledge. For this reason, government has extended Pakistan Studies, as a compulsory subject, up to the high-

er level, so that students acquire competency in various aspects about Pakistan. There is a test at the terminal stages: grades V and VIII. The book provides the sample of the test paper (English rendering) and item responses.

Pakistan. Ministry of Education. Academy of Educational Planning and Management. Perspective for educational developments in Pakistan, by Dr. Sarfaraz Khawaja. Islamabad, 1985. 33 p.

The paper was developed for the Seminar for Senior Educational Administrators organized by the Academy of Educational Planning and Management from 15 to 18 September 1985. The participants of the Seminar were senior decision-making officials of all provinces/regions of the country. The four chapters in the paper deal with separate issues of the same theme. The first chapter provides comparison of the achievements of Five Year Plans in different sectors of education: primary, secondary, college, technical and teacher education. A comparison of financial outlays is also presented. The second chapter highlights the salient features of the National Education Policy and the implementation plan of 1979 which relate to different levels and sectors of education. The third explains about the salient features of the Sixth Five Year Plan (1983-1988) and the targets set forth in the plan documents for different levels of education. The final chapter analyses certain issues and problems which have posed major constraints in the development of education.

Pakistan National Training Workshop on Interdisciplinary Approach in Curriculum Development in Higher Education, Islamabad, 30 September-4 October 1984. Interdisciplinary approach in curriculum development in higher education. Islamabad, National Academy for Higher Education, University Grants Commission, 1984. 1 v. (various pagings).

The workshop was organized in co-operation with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, within the framework of the regional co-operative programme in higher education for development. The main objectives were: To acquaint the participants with the emerging trends of the Interdisciplinary approach in curriculum designing in universities; to develop guidelines and procedures that may be of use to the teachers in designing and redesigning courses of study on the basis of this approach; and to develop some exemplary curriculum units. There were 21 participants from different universities in Pakistan. Apart from the plenary session, the participants deliberated on specific issues

of interdisciplinarity in the three themes: environmental studies; materials science; and social science.

PAPUA NEW GUINEA

Bray, Mark, ed. Education and development in Papua New Guinea: issues for planners. London, Department of Education in Developing Countries, University of London Institute of Education, 1985. 71 p. (EDC occasional papers no. 8).

This book comprises three papers written by different authors. The first paper is concerned with linkages between the economy and education in Papua New Guinea. It comments on the extent to which education contributes to economic growth and on its corollary. It also provides information about the growth of education during the Colonial Era until Independence, with statistical tables of school enrolment rates, 1975-84 and expenditure on education 1978-1983. The second paper is concerned with qualitative educational planning in Papua New Guinea. It concentrates on the quality of secondary education and points out how to maintain quality in several ways such as effective management, trained teachers, in-service training provisions, curriculum development, planned innovations, examination reform, etc. The third paper focuses on the secondary school sector. It traces its growth over the last three decades, and highlights issues of equity, localization, finance and tensions between the national and provincial governments.

Crossley, Michael, Philippa Libscomb and Anne Crossley, eds. School-based in-service training: report of a National Workshop for Papua New Guinea

This book is a report of a National Workshop on in-service training for secondary school teachers in Papua New Guinea. It was held in July 1985 with the financial assistance of UNESCO through its APEID programme. It is a collection of papers given during the Workshop. These papers have been grouped into four sections: Section 1. Improved in-service training through research findings, which consists of articles on a review of research relating to the in-service education and training of teachers in developing countries and school-based in-service training in Papua New Guinea and a description and evaluation of National In-Service Training (NIST) Week. Section 2. In-service training in Papua New Guinea which concerns the role of the Staff Development Unit (SDU) of the National Department of Education in the in-service training of national staff; three papers on case studies of tertiary in-service

programmes at the University of Papua New Guinea, Waigani and Goroka campuses; and other papers on in-service training in Papua New Guinea. Section 3. Special initiatives and support for school-based in-service which concerns information on teachers centres, education resource centres, the use of radio for in-service training of teachers, etc. Section 4. Towards improved school-based in-service which gives information on guidelines for the preparation and conduct of the in-service simulation. The last sections are the review and recommendations and the appendices.

Papua New Guinea. Department of Education. Growth of education since independence, 1975-1985. Port Moresby, The Government Printing Office, 1985. 75 p.

This book has been published to commemorate the 10th Anniversary of the Independence of Papua New Guinea and to inform the citizens of Papua New Guinea about the growth and development of education. The first chapter presents the education system in Papua New Guinea before 1970. It was introduced by the Christian missions, which provided a basic education in reading and writing. This meant the local people could read the Bible, participate in church activities and improve the living conditions in their villages. This pattern continued until after the Second World War. It informs readers about the development of the education system, showing statistical tables and charts of educational administration, and the work of the Weeden Committee. The next ten chapters deal with the current education system by explaining the structure of the National Education System, development in management and planning, community school education, provincial high schools, national high schools, non-formal education, teachers' colleges, technical education, and library development. Chapter 12 concentrates on the present education system and future plans. It also provides information about the Five-Year Plan, 1986-1990 to prepare the people to gain productive employment. It gives information about the major priorities for the next five years which are: primary education, non-formal education, high school education, and higher education. These are mentioned as a part of a Medium Term Development Strategy (MTDS).

Papua New Guinea. Department of Education. Research and Evaluation Unit. Teacher education in Papua New Guinea: and overview of major projects or reviews recently undertaken to identify needs or enhance development. Waigani, 1986. 72 p.

After ten years of independence, the education system of Papua New Guinea has advanced a lot. As utmost importance has been

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placed on primary education, the quality of teachers has had to be reviewed and upgraded. The primary schools have been changed to community schools and the Government aims to reflect the culture and life-style of their own people. So, the curriculum has incorporated the introduction of community life and development needs. Research was conducted to decide how to modify the structure of teacher education to adapt to the changes of the last decade. The report deals largely with pre-service training with a brief outline of historical developments; in-service training; identifying needs in teacher education; recent major projects associated with teacher education; and research and evaluation priorities within teacher education.

Weeks, Sheldon G. Community school expansion in Eastern Highlands Province. Port Moresby, University of Papua New Guinea, Educational Research Unit, 1985. 74 p.

This is a special report on community school expansion in the Eastern Highlands Province of Papua New Guinea, submitted to the Eastern Highlands Provincial Government, Division of Education by the Director, Educational Research Unit, University of Papua New Guinea in 1984. It was considered to use this information to improve the efficiency of educational planning in the province. The data gathered from the questionnaires and completed by the local officials comprised the different levels, locations, districts, quality of community support, library facilities, and the rating of the Grade 6 teachers and headmasters. There are 21 tables showing statistical figures with explanations on school enrolments and the results of the research. The objectives of the investigation are to assess the problems of 'staggered' grade I enrolments and the grade VI examination results. The five charts show pupil/teacher ratio and grade VI examination results, quality of school facilities and performance, quality of school libraries and performance, quality of community support and performance by non-enrolments. The eight maps show several districts in the province. There are also appendices and tables to complete this research.

PHILIPPINES

Metha, Charanjiv. Education in the Philippines. New Delhi, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, 1985. 68 p. mimeo.

The paper is the outcome of the author's 20 working days attachment to the Bureau of Elementary Education (BEE) and the

Office of the Planning Services (OPS), Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (EECS), Philippines during his study-visit in the Philippines in 1983, sponsored by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok.

It covers the information about the educational system before 1975 and after 1975 when the Ministry of Education and Culture was reorganized. It gives basic information on Educational Act of 1982, policy and objectives of the educational system, the organizational setup, non-formal education and specialized educational services, and financing of education. It gives basic information, and also provides tables of statistics and an organizational chart of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, and the Bureau of Elementary Education.

Philippines. Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports. Bureau of Elementary Education. Special Education Division. Handbook on special education: a guide for teachers, administrators and service related staff. Manila, 1981. 124 p.

This handbook is one of the major outputs of the National Workshop for Trainers of Teachers in Special Education sponsored by the Bureau of Elementary Education, Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports of the Philippines and the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP), Bangkok, Thailand, held from 2 to 13 November 1981 in Marikina, Metro Manila. Its concern is to provide teachers, administrators, and related service staff with a practical guide for training teachers in special education.

The first chapter provides the theoretical framework with which to understand the nature of special education and the principles and policies underlying the critical aspects of the area. The six succeeding chapters delineate the various components of these categories of special education: the visually impaired, the hearing impaired, the mentally retarded and the physically handicapped. The final part of this handbook presents prototype training and implementing schemes for trainers of teachers in special education.

REPUBLIC OF KOREA

Kim, Ransoo. Korean education in research perspectives. Seoul, Jong-Gak Publishing Co., 1986. xii, 276 p.

This is a collection of seven occasional papers and research monographs dealing with the problems inherent in Korean education selected on arbitrary basis using an empirical approach.

The first chapter, on citizenship education, is an action research report which was conducted in 1963 with the purpose of exploring an effective citizenship education programme in the secondary schools. The next two chapters deal with the issue of academic reform in contemporary higher education. A theoretical exposition of the need and strategies for planned change in higher education is made in the first article, and the other identifies the difference in the perception of needed academic reforms in contemporary higher education between American faculty members and Korean educational personnel in the United States. The inventory of academic reforms used in the study was also administered to the Korean faculty members and administrators in higher education, and its findings served as baseline data to formulate policy alternatives for the reform of Korean higher education, which was published in 1973. Chapters four and five are related to the issue of global literacy and the universalization of education opportunities by means of schooling. Chapter six advocates strengthening of the accreditation system for quality survival to mediate the conflict between academic requisites and social demand for opening of higher education opportunity in a contemporary mass participatory society. The last chapter concerns development of administrators' skills in handling various roles with dual context of four roles and three domains of skills. A new profile of educational administrator is set forth with some empirical data to validate its programmatic effectiveness.

Korean Educational Development Institute. Science education in the Republic of Korea, by Han Jong-ha. Seoul, 1984. 80 p.

This paper is prepared to help foreign teachers and education specialists, who might be interested in Korean science education, to get information and facts about the current science education system and teaching practices in the Republic of Korea. The paper, however, does not provide one with the details of statistics and quantitative facts of science education but aims to give a brief picture of current science teaching practices.

It consists of two parts. The first includes general information about the Korean educational system and science education, structure of school science curriculum such as goals, organization of current science curriculum, curriculum development, laboratory

activities in schools, conditions of science facilities and equipment and their development, educational technology, science teacher education, research in the science education field, and some problems and issues related to science education.

The second part provides a picture of science curricula by school level. The school science curriculum of each level includes goals of science teaching, specific objectives, specification of teaching content, and some notes for instruction and evaluation activities.

Lee Chong-Jae [et al.]. Social construction of schooling. Seoul, Korean Educational Development Institute, 1984. 159 p.

This report indicates a part of the attempts to investigate the Social Constructions of Schooling in Korea. The understanding of people's behaviour in dealing with education is one of the important factors to be considered. People's ideas, perceptions and attitudes toward education seems to play an important role in the process of realizing developmental tasks in education. This study was originally undertaken to develop the indices of educational development. In the process, there was a need to conceptualize educational development first. This led to an in-depth consideration of educational behaviour. It assumes that the major driving force for educational development is not so much the institutional infrastructure, policy measures or quantitative criteria set forth in planning as the educational behaviour and the educational perspectives that underline it.

UNICEF, Seoul. Living, learning and working: in the classroom and beyond. Seoul, 1985. 41 p.

This document was issued by UNICEF in Seoul to commemorate International Literacy Day, 8 September 1985. It elaborates on 'What UNICEF is and what it does' in general and what it does in the Republic of Korea in particular. Then follows 'Literacy in Korea', by Dr. Yong-shik Kim, president of KEDI; a general article on UNICEF effort in 'formal and non-formal education'; and some feature articles on Jamaica, Korea, Mozambique and Thailand. The concluding chapter deals with 'Eleven issues in literacy for the 1990s', by Arthur Gillette and John Ryan of the Literacy, Adult Education in Rural Development Division of UNESCO, Paris.

UNESCO. Science policy and organization of research in the Republic of Korea, by Kim Hyung-ki, assisted by Song Sang-yong, Kim In-su, Koh Kyong-shin, and Park Eul-yong. Paris, 1985. 67 p. (Science policy studies and documents, no. 56).

The present study has been prepared for UNESCO by the Korean National Commission for UNESCO. It is made up of the following parts: Part 1. Historical background; Part 2. Administrative organization of science and technology development - institutional structures and operational links; Part 3. Financing of scientific and technical research; Part 4. Scientific and technological manpower; Part 5. Principal aims of the national science and technology policy; and Part 6. The economic and political background.

Figures on expenditure, manpower, and economic aggregates are given in the tables. The general organization of research in the Republic of Korea as well as the organization of individual institutions is shown in the charts. The appendices contain selected lists of research and development funding and performing bodies, together with a short bibliography.

SRI LANKA

Rao, V.M., G.H. Peiris and S. Tilakaratne. Planning for rural development; the experience of the District Integrated Rural Development Programme of Sri Lanka, Bangkok, International Labour Organization, Asian Employment Programme (ARTEP), 1984. 118 p.

In 1979, the Government of Sri Lanka set up the District Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) to strengthen the pace of rural development by a process of greater allocation of resources to the rural sector within a system of decentralized planning. In 1982, the Ministry of Plan Implementation requested ARTEP (Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotion, ILO) to review the work that had been done by IRDP.

This publication is an edited version of a report, conducted by an ARTEP Study Team, submitted to the Government in 1983. The report was first titled 'Planning for rural development - a study of the District Integrated Rural Development Programme of Sri Lanka'. In Chapter One the study described the history and the activities of the IRDP. Next is the analysis of expenditure followed by planning system and experience. Then another chapter brings together the insights on expenditure and on planning experiences with a view to formulating a perspective for the IRDP planning system. The last chapter summarizes and evaluates the success of the programme and sets up the long-term perspectives for the future. The

final part provides appendices which give the detailed information mentioned in the five chapters.

Sri Lanka National Workshop on Early Childhood Care and Education, Colombo, 20-24 November 1984. Report. Colombo, Children's Secretariat, Ministry of Plan Implementation, 1984. 65 p.

This is a report of a Workshop organized by the Children's Secretariat of the Ministry of Plan Implementation, Sri Lanka, in collaboration with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok and the Sri Lanka Foundation Institute. The Workshop had the following objectives: (a) to promote integrated and comprehensive approaches to programmes for the care and education of the young child; (b) to assist in developing strategies for facilitating co-ordination of programmes; (c) to develop capabilities of different agencies towards improvement of services rendered by institutions; (d) to formulate plans to develop and expand supervisory and advisory services for institutions; and (e) to effect better understanding among different governmental and non-governmental agencies involved in early childhood care and education in Sri Lanka.

Representatives from Government ministries, departments, voluntary sector, and from UNESCO and UNICEF participated in the Workshop, which was organized around four major areas: total care for the young child; training of young child workers; management of programmes for the young child; and care and education of the disadvantaged young child.

UNESCO. Unit for Co-operation with UNICEF and WFP. Reforms in teacher evaluation to enhance morale and motivation: an experiment of a Sri Lankan Regional Educational Department; aids to programming UNICEF assistance to education, by L.B. Samarakoon and G.V.S.S. Rajapakse. Paris, UNESCO, 1985. 39 p. (Child, family, community, notes, comments... N.S. 158).

In earlier days in Sri Lanka, teachers occupied a place of honour in the society because of the dedication with which they performed their tasks of imparting knowledge and skills. But in recent times there has been a gradual deterioration of the status of the teacher, with the result that the teaching profession today has failed to attract people of the right calibre. The small career promotion possibilities coupled with relatively low remuneration received by the teachers have added to the further deterioration of teacher morale. This paper tries to trace the system of teacher

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evaluation in Sri Lanka and suggests an evaluation scheme for uplifting teachers, including guidelines for assessment.

THAILAND

Thailand. Ministry of Education. Department of Non-formal Education. A study on the causes and consequences of the persistency of illiteracy in Thailand. Bangkok, 1986. 115 p. mimeo.

The Thai Government sets the target in the fifth National Social and Economic Development Plan (1981-1986) to reduce the country's illiteracy rate from 14.5 to 10.5 per cent or to reduce the number of illiterates to 1.5 million within 5 years with emphasis put on those in the age group of 14-15. Consequently, the National Literacy Campaign has been launched.

This publication provides reports of interviews with neo-literates in four provinces in Thailand namely: Samut Sakhon, Nakhon Ratchasima, Phatthalung and Nan. In those interviews, the rural people explain their background, how they felt about being illiterate, how and why they joined the National Literacy Campaign and how literacy has changed their lives and perceptions.

Objectives of the study are: to obtain information on new literates with respect to their past experience, reasons for not obtaining adequate education; to assess changes occurring after acquisition of literacy skills with respect to their perceptions, recognition of the value of literacy skills in their daily lives; to collect information on the experience in the literacy programmes of the new literates concerning their initial awareness of the literacy programmes; to obtain information for planning and implementing future literacy efforts with respect to motivational techniques, learning and teaching techniques; and mistakes to be avoided when conducting literacy programmes.

Thailand. National Seminar on the National Literacy Campaign, Bangkok, 19-20 December 1984. Bangkok. Department of Non-Formal Education, Ministry of Education. 1985. 85 p. mimeo.

In order to distribute educational services to the disadvantaged people, the Government of Thailand has set a target of reducing the illiteracy rate from 14.5 per cent by the year 1986 which is the last year of the Fifth National Economic and Social Development Plan. In response to this policy, the Ministry of Education has requested and been granted approval from the National Rural Development Committee and the National Committee on Non-

Formal Education to undertake a national campaign for literacy for the period of three years from 1984 to 1986, with the goal of providing services to 1.5 million illiterate people. The project began in 18 provinces in 1984 and in 1985 the campaign will be expanded to 54 provinces with a target of an additional 500,000 learners. The national campaign has strong support from provincial governors, educational administrators, representatives of the government and private agencies. The volunteer teachers who teach the illiterates are members of the communities participating in the campaign. They are children, grand-children, husbands, wives, friends or relatives of the learners.

UNESCO/UNDP. Functional teacher education programme development; project findings and recommendations. Bangkok, UNDP, 1984. ii, 101 p. (FMR/ED.OPS/84/262 (UNDP)) 'Restricted'.

This document reports the functioning and achievement of the Functional Teacher Education Programme Development Project, and the findings of an internal evaluation of the Project at its termination. The evaluation team included several new faculty members not previously involved with the Project. The team drew upon the experiences of project personnel, project documents, and various evaluations of unit activities, in assessing project contributions.

The report is divided into four parts. Part 1 briefly reviews the history of the Chiangmai University, Faculty of Education, UNDP's and UNESCO's roles in the Faculty's development. It then examines the policy setting and objective problems of rural Northern Thai schools. Part 2 details the major project activities and achievements. Part 3 reports the evaluation findings, and Part 4 lists major recommendations.

At the time of initiation of the project, the Faculty of Education, Chiangmai University, had begun work on a new teacher training programme suited to the special problems and needs of the northern region. The work emphasized, in particular, three areas: (i) revision of existing pre-service training systems and curricula to increase the relevance of subject matter, learning sequences and teacher competencies to northern regional problems; (ii) provision of specifically designed in-service education programmes which would remedy identified learning/teaching problems; and (iii) provision of community education services for teachers and other local extension workers to bring the university and the communities served closer together. The direction of these reforms was intended

to achieve the main educational aims of the National Education Reform Committee's recommendations to promote knowledge, thinking ability, skills, and attitudes needed for knowledge of oneself, society, and environment in order to solve life's problems and enhance the quality of life.

It is in this context that the objectives and activities of the Functional Teacher Education Programme Development Project (THA/78/011/A/01/13) were designed. The project began after the signing of the Project Document by the Royal Thai Government, the Faculty of Education, Chiangmai University, UNDP, and UNESCO in October-November 1978. The initial agreement covers a four-year period. The Project Document underwent 11 revisions. Project life was extended through 1983.

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

UNESCO. European Centre for Higher Education. Higher education in the Ukrainian SSR, prepared by the Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education, Ukrainian SSR, ed. by W. Volman. Bucharest, CEPES, 1985. 80 p. (monograph on higher education).

CEPES was created in 1972 to contribute to the development of higher education in the 37 Member States of the Europe Region (including Canada, USA and Israel), by promoting international co-operation in the field. It works in three main domains: information, communication and co-operation. The present report introduces the contemporary system of higher education in the Ukrainian SSR.

The higher education of the Republic is an integral part of the system of higher education of the Soviet Union as a whole. The entire system of Soviet higher education is based on the uniform principles of socialist education. The work of military academies and higher religious education are excluded from this report. At the outset this report elaborates and traces the development of higher education from the beginning of the seventeenth century. Then it deals with goals and functions, the content of higher education, research, forms of instruction and access to higher education. The following chapters elaborate on students, teaching staff, library services, the recognition of degrees, and placement of graduates. The last two chapters deal with international co-operation and prospects for the development and further implementation of higher education.

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25-29 June 1985. Report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 82 p.

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Roy Singh, Raja. Education in Asia and the Pacific: retrospect:
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Higher Education

Programme Review Workshop on Regional Co-operation in Higher Edu-
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7 December 1985. Report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 35 p.

Literacy Programmes

UNESCO. Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific. Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL). Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 49 p.

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UNESCO-UNICEF Co-operation in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 119 p. and appendices. US\$ 6.00

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Zhang Fuguan. Training of educational administrators in China. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 32 p. (Occasional paper in educational planning, management and statistics No. 12).

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APEID Regional Study Group Meeting on Identification of Causes of Educational Underdevelopment in Rural Areas and on Relevance of Education to the Rural Environment, Bangkok, 22 October-8 November 1985. Final report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 54 p. US\$ 4.00

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APEID Project Review Meeting on Raising the Achievement Level of Children in Primary Education, Bangkok, 10-19 February 1986. Report of the meeting. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 48 p. US\$ 3.00

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Forum Meeting on New Trends and Process of Secondary Education, Port Moresby, 27 November-4 December 1986. Secondary education for the future; report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 85 p. US\$ 4.00

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APEID Regional Technical Working Group cum Training Workshop on In-service Training of Educational Personnel, Chiangmai, Thailand, 29 October-16 November 1985. Teacher development for better pupil achievement; report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1986. 86 p. US\$ 4.00

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